Researching English Occupations – Professions & Trades

by Dr. Penelope Christensen

How did your ancestors gain a livelihood? Were they in a profession or in a town or rural trade? This book covers sources describing such occupations, including training & qualification & how to find records of your ancestors at work.

Will your ancestors be remembered?

Here is practical advice on the contents of the records, how to access them from where you live, and how to use them.

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List of Books by the Same Author

Finding Your English & Welsh Ancestors
Finding Your Irish Ancestors
Finding Your Scandinavian Ancestors
Finding Your Scottish Ancestors
How Do I Prove It?
Let's Get Organized
Organization for One-Name Studies
Organization for the Professional Genealogist
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Parishes & Registration Districts in England & Wales
Research at the Family History Center
Researching English & Welsh Census Records
Researching English & Welsh Civil Registration
Researching English Occupations-Civilian Services
Researching English Occupations-Defence Services
Researching English Parish Records
Researching English Probate
Tips for Your Genealogical Trip Abroad, Including Preparing for Salt Lake
Using Register Offices for English & Welsh Certificates
What Did They Do?

TABLE OF CONTENTS

PREFACE 13
INTRODUCTION 17
FINDING OUT WHAT THEY DID 19
The Sources 19
Directories 21
Trade & Street Directories 21
CHART 1: Three Types of Directory 22
Telephone Directories 24
Dictionaries of Biography 25
ALL KINDS OF OCCUPATIONS 27
Country Folk & Townspeople 27
Bibliographies of Occupations 28
Dictionaries of Occupations 29
How Occupations Have Been Classified 29
CHART 2: Mediaeval Occupations (from DOLAN) 30
CHART 4: Occupational Classification for 1841-1881 Censuses 32
CHART 5: Occupational Classification for 1881-1911 Censuses 33
CHART 6: Occupational Classification for 1911-1951 Censuses 33
CHART 7: 1960 General Register Office—Occupational Classification 34
CHART 8: Occupational Classification Used ... 37
Multiple Occupations 37
TRAINING & QUALIFICATION 41
The Apprenticeship System 41
Trade Apprentices 41
Trade Apprentice Indentures 46
CHART 9: Trade Apprentice Indenture 1802 ... 48

CHART 10: Trade Apprentice Indenture 1912 . . 50
CHART 11: Trade Apprentice Indenture 1959 . . 52
Trade Apprenticeship Records 55
Indexes to Trade Apprentice Indentures 57
CHART 12: The 76 Ancient London Companies & 2 Societies 59
CHART 13: Summary of Inland Revenue Apprenticeship Records 1710-1811 62
CHART 14: Dashwoods from Index to Apprentices of Great Britain 63
CHART 15: Inland Revenue Apprenticeship Books of Great Britain 64
Finding Trade Indentures & Apprenticeships . . 65
Poor & Charity Apprentices 66
Poor Apprentice Indentures 70
CHART 16: Pauper Girl Apprenticeship 1792 . . 71
CHART 17: Pauper Boy Apprenticeship 1782 73
Charity Apprentice Indentures 73
CHART 18: Charity Apprenticeship 1744 74
Finding Pauper & Charity Indentures 76
Indexes & Lists of Poor & Charity Apprenticeships 76
CHART 19: Halifax Masters taking Pauper Apprentices 1800-1801 77
CHART 20: Extract from Index of Halifax Pauper Apprentices 1783-1828 78
Licences to Practice 79
Archbishops' & Bishops' Licences 79
Quarter Sessions Licences 79
Schools & Universities 81
ASSOCIATIONS 83
Guilds & Freemen 84
Freemen, Burgesses & Citizens 84

How to Discover the Company 85
Livery Companies of the City of London 86
History of Livery Companies 86
Activities of Livery Companies 88
Membership of Livery Companies 90
Records of Livery Companies 92
Freedom of the City of London 94
Guilds Outside London 96
Town & City Guilds 96
CHART 21: Extant English Guilds in 1996 97
Town & City Freemen 101
Professional Associations 103
Trade Unions 104
ON THE JOB 107
Children and Women at Work 108
Opportunities for Women 110
Markets & Fairs 111
AGRICULTURE 119
Agricultural Labourers 122
Animal Husbandry 125
Gamekeeping & Poaching 126
CHART 22: Deputations of Gamekeepers from Sussex Quarter Sessions 1837-38 127
Crop Husbandry 128
Land & Machinery 130
Gardeners & Nurserymen 130
BUILDING 131
Buildings 131
Building Trades 133
Other Building Projects 137
COMMERCIAL SERVICE 141
Auctioning 141
Cleaning Services 141

General Labourers 143
Hairdressing & Wigmaking 143
Keeping Lodgers 144
Painters & Paperers 144
Porters 145
Vermin Control 145
Telecommunications 146
Undertaking 146
DOMESTIC SERVICE 147
Economic Contribution of Women 147
Homemakers 149
Royal Warrant Holders & Royal Household Servants 150
Servants 151
FISHING & WHALING 153
Fishing 153
Whaling & Sealing 157
MANUFACTURING 159
Animal Products 159
Carts, Coaches, Wagons & Wheels 174
Chemicals, Gas & Fuel 176
Clocks, Watches, Eyeglasses & Jewellery 184
CHART 23: Examples of Listings of Watchmakers Apprentices 186
CHART 24: 18th Century Newspaper Items on Watchmakers & Clockmakers 187
Clothing & Needlecraft 188
Earthenware 201
Food & Drink 208
Instruments & Toys 213
Machinery, Guns & Munitions 217
Metals 219
Paper, Printing & Bookbinding 234

Ship & Boat Building 240
Textiles 246
Tools & Sports Equipment 257
Wood & Plant Products 261
MERCHANTS & RETAILERS 275
Merchants 275
Retailers 277
Clothing Materials & Dress 278
Food & Drink 279
CHART 25: Types of Beverage Retailers 281
CHART 26: Licensed Badgers & Hucksters from Nichaelmas Quarter Sessions 288
MINING & QUARRYING 291
Mining 291
Quarrying & Working with Stone 299
Stone Quarrying & Stone Masons 304
Salt 306
PROFESSIONAL 307
Administration & Civil Servants 308
CHART 27: Foreign Office List & Diplomatic & Consular Handbook 1898 309
Art & Amusement 316
CHART 28: Listing in Biographical Dictionary of Actors. Actresses, musicians, Dancers, Managers & other Stage Personnel in London, 1660-1800 318
CHART 29: Examples from Royal Literary Fund Minutes 321
CHART 30: Jean Burns File from Royal Literary Fund 323
Education 324
CHART 31: Examples of Schoolmasters' Licenses 326
Law 327

CHART 32: Examples from Men at the Bar ... 331
CHART 33: Example from the Law List 1812 . 333
Medicine 334
CHART 34: Example from Register of Surgeons of Diocese of Canterbury 336
CHART 35: Examples from Index of Archbishop of Canterbury Surgeons Licences . 337
CHART 36: Examples from Medical Register . 338
CHART 37: Examples from Medical Directory 339
CHART 38: Example from Certificated Apothecaries List 1815-1840 342
CHART 39: Example from Dentists Register 1912 343
CHART 40: Example of Midwife's Licence from Register of Diocese of Canterbury 348
Religion 349
CHART 41: Example of Curate's Licence from Register of Diocese of Canterbury 352
CHART 42: Example of Induction of Vicar in Diocese of Canterbury 353
CHART 44: Perpetual Curate's Licence 356
Science & Engineering 361
CHART 45: Patentees of Inventions 362
Sports 363
CHART 46: Who's Who of Cricketers 1984 ... 363
CONCLUSION 365
APPENDIX 367
Occupational Indexes 367
FURTHER READING 375
INDEX 419

PREFACE

Some of the most available and interesting material to put flesh on the bones of those names on your family tree is that concerning what they did for a living. This book describes those occupations termed Professions and Trades, whilst *Researching English Occupations-Civilian Services* and *Researching English Occupations-Defence Services* deal with other methods of earning a livelihood. *Researching English Poor Law* and *Parish Chest Records* presents material on parish officials, paupers, and vagrants. The extensive material on the occupations and on individuals is waiting to be used in archives, libraries and Family History Centers.

The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints has established the most important genealogical library system in the world to assist its members, and others, to identify their ancestors. Since the 1930s they have been microfilming national and local, civil and religious, records all over the world. The master copies of these films are protected from the elements and natural disasters in deep vaults carved out of the granite mountains near Salt Lake City, Utah.

The Family History Library in Salt Lake City houses the collection of films, fiches, papers and books and is open to the public. In addition, a network of over 3,700 branches, called Family History Centers (FHCs) operates world wide through the generosity of LDS church members.

The FHLC (Family History Library Catalogue) is now available for purchase on CD-ROM very inexpensively, as well as being provided gratis on the LDS website at www.familysearch.org. Use of FHC facilities, which include dozens of indexes essential for research, is free. Patrons may borrow microforms (films or fiches) of most original documents and books held at Salt Lake City at their local FHC for a nominal fee, which covers postage and duplication. The reader is advised to consult *Research at the Family History Center*, in this series of Heritage Productions books, for details on how to utilize the indexes, computer facilities, and other procedures at the FHCs. All genealogists are most grateful to The Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints (the Mormons) for extending the privilege of access to their collection to everyone.

Many of the records quoted in this book are available on either film or fiche. When a film is mentioned it means one available through a FHC. It is necessary to order these by means of their 7-digit LDS, or more properly GSU (Genealogical Society of Utah), number. Since there are now over two and a half million films available for loan, film numbers start with 0, 1 or 2. Many of the categories of records mentioned here are on long series of films or fiches, and the titles may be confusing. To assist the reader in finding the whole series on the FHLC I have indicated the starting film number of the series. By asking for a *Film/Fiche (Number) Search* and typing in this number the whole series will come up on the screen. Fiche numbers always start with a 6 and are followed in the present book by a number in parentheses indicating the number

of fiches in that set, for example 6026374 (11). Sometimes there is a series of fiche sets and the total number of fiches is then quoted, for example 6020392-411 (21). When ordering fiches in to a Family History Center it is essential to know this quantity as you are charged per fiche. All fiches stay at the Family History Center that ordered them, they are not returned to Salt Lake City.

Kindly note that an asterix* after the microform number indicates *No circulation to Family History Centres* but that doesn't preclude getting photocopies of selected pages by using the *Request for Photocopies Form* #31768. This is an indispensable method for obtaining inexpensive copies of documents and can be obtained free from the Family History Library in Salt Lake City or can be downloaded from the LDS website at www.familysearch.org. Details and examples of how to order and use microforms, and details and examples of using the *Request for Photocopies* form are given in the author's companion publications *Let's Get Organized* and *Research at the Family History Center*. Information is also given on how to get pertinent information from huge sets of fiches that are beyond the researcher's budget. Please note that from 2002 the charge is now $2 U.S. per page with a minimum order of $4.

University libraries and larger public libraries, especially those with a good genealogy section, hold many items of interest for the family historian interested in professions and trades. This volume also includes postal and E-mail addresses for indexes and other useful sources in the Appendix.

INTRODUCTION

Many of the basic sources for family history such as civil registration, censuses, parish registers and wills will mention the occupations followed by your ancestors. This volume looks first at the many ways of finding out what they did, then mentions generally useful sources. This is followed by a study of the classification of occupations. Sections on training & qualification in trades and professions allow us to profitably use the records generated therein. An understanding of the role of the various occupational associations is the next topic.

The bulk of the text consists of chapters on nine main groups of trades and professions. These are agriculture, building, commercial services, domestic services, fishing & whaling, manufacture, merchants & retailers, mining & quarrying, and professional activities. For each category there is an introduction to the available printed and manuscript sources regarding the nature of the various professions and trades, and then some indication of what records survive on the actual men and women engaged therein. In a book of this size these descriptions have to be short but I have endeavoured to cover the main points of significance for the family historian. However, such brevity invites superficiality and glibness and I trust that I have not fallen into this trap; perhaps it is offset by the inclusion of a significant body of reference material will lead the reader to more detailed treatments of each trade and profession.

The occupations have been divided into categories for convenience but this is an arbitrary classification, and also obscures the fact that many people's jobs covered more than one of these types of activity. Thus a shoemaker typically made and sold shoes, so falls within both manufacture and dealing categories. In addition it is important to note that the apprenticeship programme, as well as guilds and livery companies also operated within many of the services which are covered in *Researching English Occupations-Civilian Services* and *Researching English Occupations-Defence Services*. Unless stated otherwise all references to guilds & livery companies are to the London ones.

Many people switched from a service to a profession or trade in search of work, particularly between those that required similar training and experience. This is important to remember when the trail goes cold in one line of work—could he have found a job in another category? Job changes due to age, infirmity, seasons, family movement or acquisition of new skills should also be considered. Researchers are cautioned that it was not at all unusual for men to boost their rank or official status to prospective brides and in-laws, newspaper reporters or to anyone else they wished to impress. Thus a labourer at a mill may be referred to as a miller, or a journeyman baker as a master baker. The diligent researcher will search out the true facts.

The author is grateful to Angela Barnes, John Gardner and Shirley Kevern for allowing the use of apprenticeship indentures in their possession.

FINDING OUT WHAT THEY DID

The Sources

Family lore, as well as the reminiscences of friends and neighbours, can be tapped for occupational information orally and from documents. Pry out the answers to these types of questions for each job held:

- What did he do and exactly where did he work?
- Was he self-employed or did he work for a firm?
- What department did he work in and what was his precise role?
- What were his wages and benefits?
- How did he get his job?
- Did he have relatives in the same trade and firm? It is always worth considering the occupations carried on by father, uncles and sons when trying to determine what he did.
- Who was his boss?
- Did he have apprentices or assistants, how many and who were they?
- Did he celebrate 25 years in service with a special commemoration?

- Have you figured out when he celebrated his 25th or 50th wedding anniversary and looked for a newspaper write-up? It will no doubt mention his occupation.

- Why and when did he quit?

- Was there a retirement event? When, where?

- Are there any *artefacts*, for example samples of manufactured articles or tools, inherited by the family that indicate or illustrate his occupation?

- Are there photographs of him at work wearing a tradesman's garment or uniform? Get them identified.

- Are there descriptions or *illustrations* of his place of business and can they be identified?

- Have you searched for *documents* such as apprenticeship indentures, membership in trade or professional associations, prizes, inscriptions on the proverbial gold watch or retirement memento, or copies of trade magazines—perhaps with notes on long service, retirement announcements or obituaries?

The basic research sources need to be combed exhaustively. Use *civil registration* and the *census* thoroughly by getting all the certificates and census returns, because different occupational terminology may be used which widens your scope for finding records, and occupations did change over time.

Don't just use indexes to *parish registers* as these rarely give the occupations, but the originals often do. Check all his children's entries— the occupation may only be given on one of them, and Murphy's Law says it won't be the child who is your ancestor! The occupation stated when he wrote his will is not necessarily the same as earlier in life, or at death; and if no occupation is given does he bequeath implements, tools or other materials from which you can infer an occupation? Look in parish chest records such as vestry minutes, and militia returns, or land tax returns and local histories. Epitaphs and tombstone insignia, obituaries and other newspaper articles, as well as local histories are particularly recommended. The range of other sources is only limited by the researcher's imagination.

Directories

Trade & Street Directories

Many more people had their own business than nowadays and in the 19th century, at least, they will be in town and county directories. The earliest London directory is 1677, with annual volumes starting in 1734. Provincial towns generally had regular directories from the mid-18th century (Chapman 1998). They may show the residents of each street, index the gentry and tradesmen, and have much useful information on local trades and institutions in the introductory material as well as advertisements for local trades and businesses. Shaw (quoted by Camp 1999-1) did a comparison of 1871 census and directory entries and found that 98% of Exeter's main street households, and 75% of the smaller street ones, appeared in the directory.

Excerpts from different kinds of directories follow in chart 1:

CHART 1: Three Types of Directory

Topographical Directory for Leyton, London (Kelly's 1894-5)

Rutland Terrace

4 JACKSON, Charles
3 NORRIS, William
2 GOODFELLOW, John PIGOTT, F.O. Undertaker (Osborne House)...*here is Osborne Road*

Market Place

11 GILL, Richard Silvanus, baker & confectioner
10 SIMKINS, G.J., coffee rooms
9 MATTERFACE, John, stationer & newsagent
8 HARRISON, T. H. tobacconist
7 DICKSON & HEAD, lead & glass merchants

→ Continued from last page

Alphabetical Directory for Liverpool

CATO, Esther charwoman, 28 Rathbone St. W
CATO, John warehouseman, 21 Dovey St., Toxteth Park S
CATO, Robert P. gentleman, 1 Arnside Road, Oxton
CATO, William cooper, 18 Marwood St. N
CATON, Hannah, 38 White Rock St. E
CATON, James carter, 3 Sefton Ter, Devonshire Place, Everton N
CATON, John rope manufacturer, 66 Selwyn St., Kirkdale N
--------- ------- roper, Studholme St. N
CATON, Johnson police officer, 3 Wye St., Tranmere
CATON, Maria greengrocer & fruiterer, St. John's Market W

Rural Directory for Wilmslow Area
Cheshire (Pigot's 1834)

POST OFFICE, Wilmslow — Joseph Dean, Post Master

Academies & Schools

NATIONAL SCHOOL, Wilmslow — John Taylor, master
PARRY, John, Handforth
SUTHERLAND, James Rose (classical), Wilmslow

Boot & Shoe Makers

HEMSHALL, John, Wilmslow
YARWOOD, Samuel, Wilmslow

Plumbers & Glaziers

ANTROBUS, Elizabeth, Wilmslow
BLOWER, William, Wilmslow

Consultation of a long run of directories is preferable as it is then possible to ascertain when a business started, its address and any name changes over the years, and its disappearance. When the name of the proprietor is first given then one can follow up with records of his training or freedom of the city, and on disappearance of the name look for bankruptcy or sale of the business, and/or a will. Publishers include Bailey, Holden, Kelly, Pigot, Post Office, White and many others. The Universal British Directory produced 1790-1798 covered most large towns in Britain and is not the easiest to use, but contains much information not obtainable elsewhere and is the earliest national one. Even more useful for the detail they offer on individual businesses are the dozens of late 19th century *Progress, Commerce* and kindred publications noted in two articles by Titford (2002).

Directories are available at county archives, university libraries, the FHLC and many are now available on CD. The local public library reference section or local history section usually has a good run of local directories and can be contacted by post or E-mail. In London the Society of Genealogists (Newington-Irving), Guildhall Library and the Victoria & Albert Museum have all got large collections.

Telephone Directories

The first list of London telephone subscribers was published in 1880. Guildhall Library as well as the National Telephone Library contain fairly complete runs.

Dictionaries of Biography

There are many compendia of biographies such as the well-known DNB's (*Dictionary of National Biography* - see Palmer) for many countries in local public libraries. Others dedicated to every profession and most trades are available through the same source. Perhaps the easiest way to access them is through Herbert & McNeil's annual *Biography and Genealogy Master* Index (BGMI), which is now also on CD-ROM with over 11 million entries on 4 million people from approximately 900 current or retrospective biographical sources. *Biography Database 1680-1830* gives names and details extracted from directories, subscription lists and Gentleman's Magazine (Tyrwhitt-Drake).

The *British Biographical Archive* is a huge fiched series of facsimile biographies with index available in larger libraries. Series I contains approximately 300,000 articles about 170,000 persons taken from 324 biographical works from 1601-1929. Series II is mainly 20th century material on 150,000 persons (review by Titford 1995)

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ALL KINDS OF OCCUPATIONS

Country Folk & Townspeople

At the end of the 17th century very few people lived in urban environments. London had only 10% of the population, 2% lived in other towns having more than 10,000 people namely Birmingham, Bristol, Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle, Norwich and York, 8% in smaller towns and fully 80% in the countryside (Camp 1999-3). It thus follows that for the vast majority life was dominated by agriculture.

In towns there were few large firms, and factories did not appear until the second half of the 18th century so most people worked out of their homes and the (extended) family was the productive unit.

Sources particularly useful for country occupations are Arnold (1968), Filbee, Fussell & Fussell (1953, 1955) Hennell, Manners, and Wymer (1946). Town occupations are dealt with especially well by Burke, and Wymer (1949). Another useful type of publication, particularly to the traveller, is that showing the various occupational museums and workplaces open to the public (Hudson 1980-2, Lansbury).

The local occupations are frequently featured in collections of photographs at the local archives, or in publications such as the Batsford series of *Victorian & Edwardian [county or town] in Old Photographs.*

Bibliographies of Occupations

These are lists of books and articles written about particular occupations. Some sources give details about the work itself, some have names and other particulars about people in these occupations, whilst others are indexes of those in certain trades. The student should be familiar with and have access to:

- Raymond's two 1999 volumes on British *Genealogical Microfiche/ Books in Print* and his *Occupational Sources for Genealogists: A Bibliography*; his general article (2001), his series of county bibliographies, and *Londoners Occupations*.
- Gibson & Hampson's *Specialist Indexes for Family Historians*, a good source for relevant occupational indexes.
- Perkins Current *Publications by Member Societies* (Books) and *Current Publications on Microfiche by Member Societies*.
- *PERSI (Periodical Source Index)* compiled by Allen County Public Library which is on fiche to 1990 and now on CD-ROM to date.
- The *Index of Indexers* in six parts by Brian Jones.

Jewell's *Crafts, Trades and Industries. A Book List for Local Historians* is an older book which is still valuable, and Camp's *My Ancestors Moved in England or Wales* has a number of excellent and sometimes unusual sources. *Trades and Skilled Occupations* is a bibliographic index run by George Nicolle where for a small fee he will send you a list of appropriate references.

Dictionaries of Occupations

Explanations of the names given to occupations can be found in three popular books for family historians by A. & S. Twining (over 1,000), Culling (about 1,500) and Waters (nearly 4,000). The 2nd edition of the author's What Did They Do? due in early 2003 will have approximately 7,500 of the commonest occupational terms. There are thousands more terms and recourse can be made in any library to a larger Oxford English Dictionary. Local dialect words are more problematic, and students can either search Wright's six-volumed English Dialect Dictionary or E-mail the appropriate county or local archives who should have a dictionary of local terminology. There are a number of mailing lists aimed at discussing specific occupations, particularly on www.rootsweb.com

How Occupations Have Been Classified

The evolution of occupations in English society can be seen in a series of classifications of jobs over time, and I present six such charts here, ranging from mediaeval to pre-computer 20th century. Most of the classifications also include a catch-all class of inadequately described occupations, unemployed persons etc. which have been ignored here.

CHART 2:
Mediaeval Occupations (from DOLAN)

Potters	Made useful artefacts from clay.
Iron smiths	Those who worked with iron whether they made tools, horseshoes, anchors, weapons or armour.
Non-ferrous smiths	Those working in gold, silver, copper, brass, lead, pewter and even horn.
Bows & arrows	Those who made the components and those who used them.
Building trades	Stone quarriers and masons, floor and pavement layers, plasterers, carpenters, roofers, painters and glassworkers.
Wool industry	Everybody from shepherds, shearers, carders and spinners, to bleachers, dyers, loom makers and wool merchants.
Linen, silk & other fabrics	Included rope, string, canvas, tapestry, clothing, milliners, and all kinds of bags.
Leather industry	Included producers of rawhide, makers of leather belts, bottles, saddles, gloves, bags, shoes, and bellows as well as the fur business.
Farming	Those who grew arable crops and orchards, animal herders and producers of dairy products and butchers.
Millers & bakers	Included sieve-makers, and those who dealt in spices and salt.
Shipping & merchants	Everyone from ship builders to peddlers.
Innkeepers	Included all types of beverage makers
Specialized wood & metal workers	Included coopers, molders, minters, cabinetmakers, and those making baskets, wheels, wagons, tools & bells.
Nobility, gentry & their staff	Included guards, tax assessors, cooks, and chaplains.
Entertainers	Whether musicians, poets, jugglers or dancers.
Hunters	Included falconers, watchmen, and fishermen.
Messengers, guards & porters	
Lawmen & officials	

Church & monastic	Included secular and lay personnel.
Other mediaeval occupations	A diverse group consisting of doctors, university personnel, bookbinders, mercenaries and military engineers.

CHART 3:
Occupational Classification for 1851 Census

Imperial or local government employees	
Defence services	
Religion, law & medicine	
Art, literature, science & education	
Household duties	Boarding, lodging, domestic service & dress
Commercial pursuits	Bankers, merchants etc.
Conveyance of people or goods	
Agriculture	Seems to mean crops
Breeding, animal tending & fishing	
Higher branches of mechanical or chemical arts	Artisans, mechanics, book-sellers, printers, building trades, makers of tools, ships, coaches, chemicals, dyers etc.
Workers or dealers in animal substances	Includes butchers, poulterers & woollen & silk operatives.
Workers or dealers in plant substances	From the brewer to upholsterer, paper manufacturer, cotton spinner and greengrocer.
Workers in mineral substances	
Unskilled labour	
Persons of rank, property or independent means	

CHART 4:
Occupational Classification for 1841-1881 Censuses (from BOOTH)

Agriculture	Farmers, labourers, gardeners, nurserymen, drainage, machinery attendants, breeding, dealing
Fishing	
Mining	Miners, quarrying, brickmaking, salt & water works.
Building	Management & operatives, roadmaking.
Manufacture	Machinery, tools, ships, metals, wooden ware, earthenware, chemicals, animal products, paper, floorcloth, textiles, dying, dress, food, drink, smoking, watches, instruments, toys, printing & bookbinding & various engineers & mechanics.
Transport	Navigation & docks, railways, roads.
Dealing	Raw materials, clothing, food, drink & smoking, lodging & coffee houses, furniture & utensils.
Industrial service	
Commercial & general labour	
Public service & professional	Army, navy, police, prisons, law, medicine, art & amusement, literature, science, education, religion.
Domestic service	Indoor and outdoor, including public & private coachmen, domestic & market gardeners.

CHART 5:
Occupational Classification for 1881-1911 Censuses (from ROUTH)

Public administration
Armed forces
Professional and subordinate services
Domestic & personal service
Commerce & finance
Transport & communication
Agriculture
Fishing
Mining, quarrying & working in their products
Building & construction
Manufacture
Gas, electricity & water

CHART 6:
Occupational Classification for 1911-1951 Censuses (from ROUTH)

Higher professional (the learned professions)	Requiring some years study at university or other institutions.
Lower professional	Artists, draughtsmen, librarians, medical auxiliaries, officials of associations, pharmacists, teachers, actors, aircrew, musicians, professional sportsmen.
Employers & proprietors	All other employers, and proprietors (business owners having no employees but owning property).
Managers & administrators	Includes managers in service & production industries, and administrators & other higher officers in public service.
Clerical workers	All kinds of clerks, bookkeepers (not accountants), insurance agents, canvassers, office machine operators, typists and shorthand typists.

Foremen, inspectors, supervisors	In all industries except clerical and professional areas.
Skilled manual workers	Craftsmen who have served their apprenticeship or otherwise acquired theoretical knowledge that backs up their practical skills.
Semi-skilled manual workers	Perform tasks that can be learnt in months rather than years. Include machine operators, assemblers, ticket collectors & conductors, vehicle drivers, postmen & sorters, telephone operators, waiters, domestic servants, shop assistants, agricultural workers.
Unskilled manual workers	Do jobs that can be learnt in hours rather than months. Includes labourers whose strength and stamina rather than skill are required; also charwomen, office cleaners, door-keepers, porters, and watchmen.

CHART 7:
1960 General Register Office—Occupational Classification

Farmers, foresters & fishermen	Included agricultural machinery drivers, gardeners, groundsmen and crofters.
Miners & quarrymen	Including surface and underground workers, and coal, ores, slate and stone.
Gas, coke & chemicals makers	
Furnace men, & non-food chemical production process workers.	
Glass & ceramics makers	Including brick and pottery workers, glass & ceramic furnacemen, ceramic decorators.
Furnace, forge, foundry & rolling mill workers	Includes smiths, moulders, coremakers, metal treating & dressing workers.
Electrical & electronic workers	Including radio, radar, telephone, telegraph, television workers and electrical engineers.

Engineering & allied trades	All kinds of metal workers, engineers, plumbers, electricians, makers of watches, precision instruments, jewellery and carriages, goldsmiths, and machines.
Woodworkers	Sawyers, carpenters, cabinet makers, coopers, and making anything else of wood.
Leather workers	Tanning, fur, shoemaking, and all products from leather except garments.
Textile workers	Many kinds of fibre preparers, spinners, weavers, knitters, dyers, finishers, examiners.
Clothing workers	Tailors, upholsterers, sewers of clothes and related products.
Food & tobacco workers	Bakers & pastry cooks, butchers, brewers, food processors, tobacco product makers.
Paper & printing workers	Makers of paper & paper products, printers & printing workers compositors, bookbinders
Makers of other products	Rubber, plastics, various craftsmen, & other production process workers.
Construction workers	Bricklayers, masons, stone & slate workers, plasterers, builders, clerks of works, and other construction workers.
Painters & decorators	Including aerographers & paint sprayers, sign writers, wallpaperers, french polishers.
Drivers of cranes & stationary engines	Boiler firemen & some furnacemen, earth movers, construction machinery operators, boiler scalers, plant operators, oilers.
Labourers	Includes railway lengthmen, and unskilled workers in many trades.
Transport & communications workers	Drivers, conductors, inspectors etc. on ships, aircraft, railways, buses and similar vehicles, despatchers, telegraph & radio operators, postmen, messengers, porters, van guards.
Warehousemen, storekeepers, packers, bottlers	
Clerical workers	Typists, secretaries, clerks, office machine operators, library assistants, civil servants.

Sales workers	All kinds of food and non-food sales, buyers, roundsmen, street vendors, garages, financial workers, insurance, auctioneers etc.
Service, sport & recreation	Fire, police, guards, publicans, hotel keepers & workers, sweeps, cleaners, hairdressers launderers, athletes, hospital orderlies, etc.
Administrators & managers	Senior government, local authority and business officials.
Professional, technical workers, artists	
Medical personnel, university and school teachers, engineers, technologists, scientists, authors, musicians, painters, accountants, architects, clergy, lawyers, & other professionals.	
Armed forces	

Note: Computers had not yet arrived on the scene in 1960!

Categories Used Here

The present work attempts the impossible—to be comprehensive of the whole of recorded history, whether your ancestor worked in 1050 or 1950! The field is probably more useful than the level as this would increase over time and doesn't immediately lead to useful records; in other words, it is more useful to know first that he is a shoemaker than that he is a supervisor in a factory. The classification used here is shown in chart 8, but placement in a particular category is often arbitrary as so much cross-over occurs, for example a patten is made of iron, wood and leather but it is classified here under Manufacture-Animal Products -Boot and Shoe Making as I feel that's where the reader will look first!

CHART 8:
Occupational Classification Used

In Researching English Occupations-Professions & Trades
Agriculture
Building
Commercial services
Domestic services
Fishing & whaling
Manufacture
Merchants & retailers
Mining & quarrying
Professional

In Researching English Occupations-The Services
Public Services
Army, navy, marines, militia, airforce, East India Company, police, fire and rescue, customs and excise, coastguard, lifeboats, and lighthouses
Transport & Communication
Merchant marine, inland waterways, railways, roads, and post office.

Multiple Occupations

For our ancestors, having more than one job during a lifetime, or at once, was quite normal. The researcher should therefore be prepared for an ancestor to have different trades especially at different seasons, on moving to a different place or with advancing age. Wood (2001-1) has pondered on the necessity of *moonlighting*, that is having both a day and a night job in order to survive. He suggests that those who held more than one day job be called *sunlighters*.

He quotes John Thomas of Ystrad, Carmarthenshire who in the 1891 census records nine clerical occupations:

- Town Clerk
- Clerk to the Justices
- Vestry Clerk
- Vaccination Officer
- Clerk to the Main Roads Committee
- Registrar of Births, Deaths & Marriages
- Tithe & Rent Receiver
- Clerk to the Burial Board, and
- County Court Clerk.

Now consider the assortment carried out by James Bazley of Cambridge:

- Glover
- Undertaker,
- Hosier
- Orange Merchant and
- Parchment Maker.

Enos Thomson of Scalby, Yorkshire was noted by Dutton as combining the trades of:

- Sexton & Undertaker
- Joiner & Builder
- Painter and Grainer
- Whitewasher & Paperhanger
- Plumber & Glazier
- Whitesmith
- Locksmith
- Gasfitter

- Bellhanger
- Carver, Gilder & Pictureframe Maker.

Then there was John Cook of Brentwood, Essex circa 1637 (Cressy) who was:

- Schoolmaster
- Ale House Keeper
- Tailor
- Gardener and Under-bailiff

And he also found time to 'keep company' with two sisters and their mother!

TRAINING & QUALIFICATION

A look at the printed and manuscript sources available for those who have qualified or trained in particular fields, and at licences granted to pursue certain trades.

The Apprenticeship System

From the Middle Ages the way in which men, and some women, learned their trade was by serving an apprenticeship with a master of that craft or *mystery*, as it was known. There were three kinds—trade, poor and charity apprentices.

Trade Apprentices

The Statute of Apprentices of 1563, which remained on the books until 1814, extended the practice already in use by the City of London Livery Companies to all market towns, and laid down that:

- ⇨ No-one could enter a trade unless they had served an apprenticeship of at least seven years.
- ⇨ The child had to start between the ages of 10 and 18, and his apprenticeship had to last until he was at least 21 years old.
- ⇨ The apprentice had to be the son of a freeman, not a labourer or one in husbandry, although there are many exceptions amongst the records.
- ⇨ The master had to be at least 24 years old and exercising an *art, mystery or manual occupation.*

The terms were modified by later Acts and by legal judgements, for example:

- ⇨ In 1703 boys as young as seven, until 1705 when the minimum age was raised to 13 (Camp 1998), could be apprenticed for up to ten years in the Royal Navy or merchant service to a shipowner, fisherman, ship's gunner or shipwright.
- ⇨ In 1766-7, the maximum age for an apprentice was reduced from 24 to 21 which of course meant that 14 was the latest age for entering and was indeed the typical age of entry.
- ⇨ The term of apprenticeship was reduced to 4 years in 1889.

There were regulations in many trades regarding how many apprentices one master could take, and to his allowable ratio of employed journeymen to apprentices. A premium was paid at the outset by the child's father with higher status trades such as lawyers and goldsmiths demanding much higher ones than millers and shoemakers. The boy would live in the master's household receiving his training, clothes, board, and lodging. He was not allowed to play at unlawful games, absent himself, or marry without his master's permission, which might explain some of those cases where children arrived prior to parents tying the knot. On the other hand, some 8% of apprentices in 17th century London eventually ended up marrying their masters' daughters (Camp 2001-5).

Many masters treated their apprentices well and many apprentices were faithful, but both master and apprentice could file complaint with the chamberlain or the wardens of the company, and these would be recorded and acted upon. Quarter Sessions contain records of ill treatment by masters, who could be fined and have their apprentices *turned over* (re-assigned), also of apprentices who were impudent, lazy or who absconded. Golland describes some of the atrocious conditions that apprentices suffered. Apprentices would also be turned over to another suitable master in the event their own died or became incapable of fulfilling his duties. Drop-out rates from apprenticeships were high, up to 50% in London and Bristol in the 16th and 17th centuries (Hey), and reasons vary but the far higher death rate amongst young people then was one of them. Chitty describes the five ways in which an apprenticeship could be cancelled:

1) By the full expiration of the term and therefore completion of the apprenticeship.
2) By the bankruptcy or insolvency of the master, which did not release the master or his estate from the obligation to provide instruction and maintenance.
3) By the death of the master or the apprentice. If the master died, his estate still had to provide maintenance but not instruction.
4) By mutual consent of the parties who signed the indenture, including the apprentice if now of age.
5) By the magistrates in cases of gross misconduct by master or apprentice.

The completion of the apprenticeship either with the original master or by being turned over to another, was necessary if the apprentice wished to acquire his freedom of a trade company or a corporate town. Corporate towns had special property qualifications probably designed to ensure that only those boys with sufficient capital to set themselves up in business after their apprenticeship could be bound apprentice. The craftsmen to whom this applied were clothiers, drapers, embroiderers, goldsmiths, ironmongers, mercers, and merchants. Only their own sons, or sons of a father or widowed mother who had an estate of at least 40 shillings (£2) per annum could apprentice to such a trade in a corporate town. Three Justices of the Peace certified this to the mayor who enrolled it in the corporation records. If an apprentice came from another place his parent had to have an inheritance or freehold worth at least 60 shillings (£3) per annum. Some towns and trades had other specific regulations such as boys having to be English, legitimate and not handicapped (Golland).

The following trades had no financial conditions for apprenticeship: bricklayers, brickmakers, burners of ores and wood ashes, carpenters, coopers, earthen potters, fullers, limeburners, linen weavers, millers, millwrights, plasterers, ploughwrights, rough masons, sawyers, shinglers, slaters, smiths, tilemakers, wheelwrights, and woollen weavers of household cloth. It should be recognized that by the eighteenth century apprenticeships were often undertaken without a formal indenture being made. This is especially the case when a master took on his sons and nephews and in common

trades like weaving and other areas of the woollen trades. Camp (1992) has expressed the view that the majority of apprentices served their fathers or close relatives and thus no indentures were drawn up. The apprenticeship system:

- Provided a supply of trained craftsmen.
- Ensured high quality goods and thus the reputation of the guild.
- Regulated the numbers entering a trade thus retaining the guild's monopoly and keeping prices and wages up.
- Allowed men to train to earn their living and thus be reasonably self-sufficient before marriage.
- Kept adolescents busy and out of trouble for a number of years; by the 19th century the period varied from two to 16 years.
- As the Industrial Revolution advanced and a wider variety of education and employment opportunities were available the apprenticeship system dwindled in many trades. The Statute of Apprentices was repealed in 1814 but this did not spell the end of apprenticeships in Britain, which continued on a voluntary basis and still do. Even by 1906 over 20% of working men aged 15-19 were apprenticed (Camp 1998). My father apprenticed for seven years as a silk block printer in the 1930s, and my brother for six years in 1959 to bookbinding. The latter had to attend one day a week at the London School of Printing & Graphic Arts to get theoretical background for his trade as well as English and Math. These old-style apprenticeships ceased in the 1970s; a new type exists but they are nothing like the quality of the old ones according to my brother.

Trade Apprentice Indentures

An *indenture* is any deed executed between two or more parties and written out in as many copies as there were parties—all on one sheet of parchment or paper (Fitzhugh). An indented or wavy line was drawn between the copies and sometimes the word *chirograph*, (meaning a document written more than once on the same sheet), is written across this line. The sheet was then cut along the line and the two parts could be matched together later if there was ever a dispute. After 1757 any properly stamped deed was sufficient, not necessarily in two parts with the wavy cut line, but the term *indenture* continued to be used. One copy of the apprenticeship indenture was kept by the father and the other by the master and these originals rarely survive. However they were registered by the city or company and these register books are available (see later).

The indenture recorded:

- The name of the apprentice, and sometimes his date and place of birth.
- His father, and sometimes his father's residence and occupation.
- The name of the master and his trade.
- The start date and length of the apprenticeship.
- The duties of both master and apprentice.

The index will note the trade practiced by the master, but only the original indenture will indicate whether the apprentice was to learn that trade or simply be a labourer, servant or housemaid to him or her. Since apprentices often stayed in their masters' town after finishing their time, and would have gained settlement there after 40 days, then apprenticeship indentures can indicate temporary or permanent migration.

Copies of early trade indentures kept by the family and the master are hard to find but poor and charity indentures were kept in the parish chest and 17th and 18th century ones have more often survived and been filmed. Charts 9-11 show three regular trade apprentice indentures dating from 1802, 1912 and 1959. The 1792 and 1782 pauper apprenticeships shown in charts 16-17 and the 1744 charity apprenticeship in chart 18 are from the previous century and reflect the general conditions for all apprentices at that time. The student will find it instructive to note the gradual evolution of conditions for the apprentice from:

- Payment of a premium to receiving a small wage.
- Living in with the master with everything found to daily attendance and nothing found.
- Length of 7-10 years to 5-6 years.
- Stringent social and moral restrictions to no comments on free time activities.

CHART 9:
Trade Apprentice Indenture 1802

THIS INDENTURE Witnesseth that ***Richard Ratley*** as well of his own free will as by and with the consent of ***John Ratley his father of Henfield in the County of Sussex yeoman***, doth put himself Apprentice to ***Ned Packham of Cuckfield in the said County, Plumber, Glazier and Painter*** to learn his Art and with him after the manner of an Apprentice to serve from the ***First day of January one thousand eight hundred and two***, unto the full End and Term of ***Seven Years*** from thence start following to be complete and ended. During which Term the said Apprentice his Master faithfully shall serve, his secrets keep, his lawful commands every where gladly do. He shall do no damage to his said Master nor see to be done or other but to his Power shall let or forthwith give warning to his said Master of the same. He shall not waste the Goods of his said Master or lend them unlawfully to any. He shall not commit fornication nor contract Matrimony within the said Term. He shall not play at Cards or Dice Tables or any other unlawful Games whereby his said Master may have any loss with his own Goods or other during the said Term without Licence of his said Master. He shall neither buy nor sell, he shall not haunt Taverns or Play house, nor absent himself from his said Master's Service day or night unlawfully. But in all things as a faithful Apprentice he shall behave himself towards his Master and all his during the said Term.

And the said ***Ned Packham*** in Consideration of the Sum of ***Ten pounds*** to be paid by the said ***John Ratley*** doth Covenant, promise and agree with the said ***John Ratley***, his Executors and Administrators by these presents that he the said ***Ned Packham*** his said Apprentice in the Art of a ***Plumber, Glazier and Painter*** which he useth, by the best means he can, shall teach and instruct or cause to be taught and instructed, Finding unto the said Apprentice Sufficient *Meat, Drink and Lodging* during the said Term.

→ Continued on the next page

And the said John Ratley doth Covenant for himself, his Executors and Administrators, with the said Ned Packham to find and provide for his said son *Washing, Mending, Apparell and all other Necessaries* during his Apprenticeship.
And for the true performance of all and every the said Covenants and Agreements either of the said Parties bindeth himself unto the other by these Presents. In Witness whereof the Parties abovenamed to these Indentures interchangeably have put their Hands and Seals the ***Sixteenth*** day of ***September*** and in the *fortysixth* Year of the Reign of our Sovereign *Lord George the third* by the Grace of God of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland King, Defender of the Faith, and in the Year of our Lord ***One Thousand Eight hundred and one***.
[Transcript provided by Angela Barnes.]

During the 18th century apprentices started to receive a very small weekly wage, rising each year (Golland).

CHART 10: Trade Apprentice Indenture 1912

Campion Dashwood was 14 years 3 months.

THIS INDENTURE Witnesseth That ***Campion Dashwood*** doth put *himself* Apprentice to ***Frederick Norris, Market Parade, Gloucester***, to learn his Art, trade or business and with him after the Manner of an Apprentice to serve from the ***1st March 1912*** until the full End and Term of ***Five*** years and thence next following to be fully complete and ended. DURING which Term the said Apprentice *his Master* faithfully shall serve, *his* secrets keep, *his* lawfull commands everywhere gladly do; he shall do no damage to *his* said *Master* nor see to be done of others but to the best of *his* power shall prevent or forthwith give warning to *his* said *Master* of the same; he shall not waste the Goods of *his* said *Master*, nor lend them unlawfully to any; he shall not do any act whereby *his* said *Master* may have any loss with his own goods or others during the said Term without Licence of *his* said *Master*; shall *neither* buy nor sell nor absent *himself* from *his* said *Master's* service day *or night* unlawfully. But in all things as a faithful Apprentice he shall behave *himself* towards *his* said *Master* and all his during the said Term. AND the said ***Frederick Norris agrees to pay his said apprentice***:

First year	***Nil***	
2nd	***5/-***	
3rd	***7/-***	
4th	***9/-***	
5th	***11/-***	[weekly]

He, said Apprentice, in the Art, trade or business of ***Coach & Motor Body Painting*** which he uses, by the best means that he can, shall teach and Instruct or cause to be taught and instructed

Finding unto the said Apprentice sufficient Meat, Drink, Lodging and all other Necessaries during the said Term

→ Continued on the next page

AND for the true performance of all and every the said Covenants and Agreements either of the said Parties bindeth *himself* unto the other by these Presents. **IN WITNESS** whereof the parties above named have hereunto set their Hands and Seals the ***21st May*** day of ***1912*** in the year of Our Lord One Thousand Nine Hundred and ***12***.
Signed sealed & delivered by the above named ***Christian William Dashwood (father), Campion Dashwood, Frederick Norris.***

CHART 11:
Trade Apprentice Indenture 1959

John Gardner was 15 years and 4 months old, the school leaving age being 15 in 1959.

THIS INDENTURE made on the ***18th*** day of ***November 1959*** between ***John Bernard Gardner*** of ***16 Red House Lane, Bexleyheath, Kent*** (hereinafter called "The Apprentice") of the first part; ***Herbert Leonard Gardner*** of ***16 Red House Lane, Bexleyheath, Kent*** (hereinafter called "The Guardian") of the second part; ***T.C. Woolnough & Son Ltd of 25 & 27 Sayer Street SE 17*** (hereinafter called "The Master") of the third part **WHEREAS** the said Master exercises the art, trade, or business of a ***Bookbinder***.

NOW THIS INDENTURE WITNESSETH that the said Apprentice of his own free will and accord, and with the consent of the said Guardian (testified by their executing these presents), Doth bind himself to the said Master to learn the art, trade, or business of a Bookbinder, and with him, after the manner of an Apprentice, to serve from the ***10th*** day of ***August 1959*** until the full end and term of ***Six*** years thence next following, this period of service to include any period of compulsory national service taken during apprenticeship, provided that the apprenticeship shall not be completed until at least five years (or such other period as may be provided in the appropriate agreements current in the industry) of actual craft training has been carried out either in the Master's establishment or in the appropriate trade category during national service, and that the Apprentice has reached the age of 21 years. The Apprentice and the Guardian hereby jointly and severally covenant with the Master that the Apprentice will during his apprenticeship faithfully, honestly, and diligently serve the Master, and obey and perform all lawful commands and requirements, and keep his secrets, and shall not do or knowingly suffer to be done any damage or injury to the property of the Master, or of his customers, nor see it done by others without acquainting him

→ Continued on the next page

therewith, and will not waste or make away with the goods or property of the Master nor lend the said goods or property to anyone, and will not without the consent of the Master absent himself from the service of the Master at anytime during the said term of ***six*** years, and will observe and abide by the general regulations made from time to time for the conduct of the factory or works, and will and shall in all things conduct and acquit himself as a true and faithful Apprentice.

AND IT IS HEREBY AGREED that the Master will teach or cause the Apprentice to be taught during the said term, the art, trade, or business of a ***Bookbinder*** as practised in his establishment, the hours of employment being those generally recognized as the working hours for the journeymen in the industry; and so long as the Apprentice shall duly and faithfully perform his part of this Indenture the Master will pay to him as wage a sum calculated in accordance with the agreements covering apprentices' wages current in the industry.

(*Note:* Under the agreements current at the date of execution of this Indenture the wage payable to the Apprentice will be a sum represented by a percentage of the agreed minimum grade rate for journeymen in the town or district in which they are employed) or an agreed proportion of such according to the number of hours worked by the Apprentice in any one week, any overtime worked to be paid for at the appropriate proportionate overtime rates) in accordance with the scale set out below.

Year of Apprenticeship	*Wages, expressed as a percentage of the basic minimum wage of a journeyman.*
(Details to be written in by firm concerned)	
First year	25%
Second year	30%
Third year	40%
Fourth year	55%
Fifth year	65%
Sixth year	75%

→ Continued on the next page

In addition the Apprentice is to be paid such cost of living bonus as is provided for by, and calculated in accordance with, the appropriate agreements current in the industry.

AND IT IS HEREBY AGREED that the Master shall have power to suspend the Apprentice in the case of wilful disobedience, neglect of duty, idleness, dishonesty or incompetence, and that any such suspension shall be reported forthwith to the Local Apprenticeship Committee of the Joint Industrial Council (or if no such Committee is in being to the Apprenticeship Authority at the head offices of the Joint Industrial Council of the Printing and Allied Trades in London), which shall make suitable representations to the party concerned.

AND IT IS HEREBY AGREED that any difference between the parties to this Indenture which is not resolved following advice offered by the Local Apprenticeship Committee shall be reported to the Apprenticeship Authority as constituted by the Joint Industrial Council at a meeting held in London on 12th April 1945, and that Authority upon consideration of the facts shall make suitable representations to the parties, and shall have power if necessary to cancel this Indenture and from and after the date of such cancellation the apprenticeship shall be at an end and all liability under this Indenture by the Master to the Apprentice shall cease.

IN WITNESS whereof the Parties above named have put their Hands and Seals the ***18th*** day of ***November*** in the Year of our Lord One thousand nine hundred and ***fifty nine***.

Apprentice ***J.B. Gardner, 16 Red House Lane, Bexleyheath***
Witness ***W.F. Barber, 14 Granville Square, London WC1***
Guardian ***H.L. Gardner, 16 Red House Lane, Bexleyheath***
Witness ***I. Carley, 69 Bullhead Road, Boreham Wood, Herts***
Master ***S.G. Herbert, 41 Dugdale Hill Lane, Potters Bar, Mddx***
Witness ***A.J. Broad, 107a Cambray Road, SW12***

ENDORSEMENT UPON COMPLETION

John Gardner has completed a very satisfactory apprenticeship.
For and on behalf of T.C. Woolnough & Son Ltd
S.G. Herbert, Managing Director *10th August 1965*

Trade Apprenticeship Records

The trade *companies* kept control of apprenticeships that lead to freedom of their company. *Corporations of cities and boroughs* were also interested in keeping records as these young men would also be applying for the freedom of the city or borough. The latter freedom gave them the right to trade in the borough and also to vote in Parliamentary elections. Register books of apprentices bound to members (freemen) within the jurisdiction of their company and/or when the apprentices were presented at about the same time to the company's governing body (the Court) were kept:

- By the livery companies of London from the 16th century. So many people went up to London to learn their trades or gain their qualifications that these resources apply to the whole country.
- By the Corporation of the City of London; these include indentures from 1681 and enrolments from 1786 and are arranged chronologically and indexed by name, not by the company. Records after 1915 are held by the Chamberlain's Court at the same address.
- By trade guilds in other towns and cities.
- By some corporate boroughs.

Register books give the following information:

- Name and age of apprentice.
- Date of binding or presentment.
- Name of father, mother or guardian.
- Place of origin.
- Term of the apprenticeship.
- Master's name and address.
- The amount of the premium paid to the master.

- Amount of any fees or gifts due to the company.
- Records of any turnover to another master.

The company's *Court Minutes* and *Wardens' Accounts* may also contain information about apprentices and often start earlier than the registers, and the court minutes may have more details than the registers. From 1694 to about 1861 there was an orphans' tax payable to the Chamber of London on bindings and used to support orphans. Most companies have a separate series of *Orphans' Tax Registers* which just give the names of the apprentices, date of binding or presentment and the tax paid. These three alternate sources can be used to augment the registers, being especially useful when the registers no longer exist.

Many apprentices died or did not complete their apprenticeship for other reasons, and in some periods this was the majority. Apprentices completing their time would normally then be admitted to the freedom of the company and further records exist of this event. Some who had served their time moved away, possibly back to the town they came from originally, and either took up the freedom of a company elsewhere, or did not continue in that trade.

Indexes to Trade Apprentice Indentures

Indexes of apprentices' names are great, but better ones also contain indexes by occupation, place and master. The latter are especially helpful in tracing a master who has moved, providing he continues taking apprentices. As with any index, be prepared to be quite creative with spelling, including the name's first letter. Major collections include:

- Wall's index of *Crisp's Apprenticeships*, a collection of 1525 apprenticeship indentures 1641-1888 is on films 1818412-5. The early ones are mainly pauper apprenticeships. Note: these are not Crisp's Bonds which are not for apprenticeships (Camp 1998).
- The 180 mariners' indentures (1780 and 1818-1845) in the *Trinity House* collection are included in Camp's 1987 index book.
- Cottrell has indexed the *Watermen & Lightermen's Company* bindings and these are now on CD.
- Webb is gradually indexing the rest of the surviving *London companies' apprenticeships* at the Guildhall Library up to 1800 or to the end of the volume containing that year (see chart 12 and Webb 1996-2002). Boys, and some girls, from all over Great Britain are here, and it is always worth checking all these booklets, since the master is not necessarily in the company named for his trade.

Nine companies retain their own records thus an application has to be made directly to the Clerk of the Company:

CLOTHWORKERS	DRAPERS
GOLDSMITHS	LEATHERSELLERS
MASTER MARINERS	MERCERS
SADDLERS	SALTERS
STATIONERS	

CHART 12: The 76 Ancient London Companies & 2 Societies† whose surviving non-current records are in the Guildhall Library

Those in italics are the 49 whose apprenticeships have been indexed by Webb, one~ by Wallis, and one* by Cottrell.

Apothecaries~	*Armourers & Braziers*
Bakers (*Brown Bakers*)	Barbers & Barber Surgeons
Basketmakers	Blacksmith
Bowyers	*Brewers*
Broderers	Butchers
Carmen	Carpenters
Clockmakers	*Coach & Coach Harness Makers*
Combmakers	*Cooks*
Coopers	Cordwainers
Curriers	*Cutlers*
Distillers	*Dyers*
Fanmakers	*Farriers*
Fellowship Porters†	*Feltmakers*
Fishmongers	*Fletchers*
Founders	*Framework Knitters*
Fruiterers	*Gardeners*
Girdlers	*Glass Sellers*
Glaziers	*Glovers*
Gold & Silver Wyre Drawers	Grocers
Gunmakers	Haberdashers
Horners	*Innholders*
Ironmongers	Joiners & Ceilers
Longbowstringmakers	Loriners
Masons	Merchant Taylors
Musicians	*Needlemakers*
Painter Stainers	Parish Clerks
Pattenmakers	*Paviors*
Pewterers	*Pinmakers*
Plaisterers	*Pinmakers*

Plumbers	*Pinmakers*
Saddlers (some)	Scriveners
Shipwrights	Skinners
Spectaclemakers	Tacklehouse & Ticket Porters†
Tallow Chandlers	*Tin Plate Workers*
Tobacco Pipe Makers & Tobacco Blenders	Turners
Tylers & Bricklayers	*Upholders*
Vintners	Watermen & Lightermen*
Wax Chandlers	Weavers
Wheelwrights	*Woolmen*

Various town and county listings have been made, for example East Surrey FHS has produced fiche of Battersea 1602-1902, Croydon 1802-1843, Mitcham 1700-1844, Mortlake 1614-1915, Reigate 1672-1796 and Wimbledon 1690-1895 apprenticeships.

Inland Revenue Apprenticeship Records

In 1710 a tax or duty was imposed on apprenticeship bindings. Four kinds of apprenticeships were exempt:

- ✓ Those where the indenture fee (or premium) was under one shilling, typically those to relatives.
- ✓ Apprenticeships paid for by the parish, usually pauper children whose parents were on relief.
- ✓ Those at the expense of a charity, which could be a public charity or an individual bequest.
- ✓ Apprenticeships in the many industries that did not exist at the time of the 1563 Statute (Hey), the most notable being the 18th century cotton trade.

Naturally, people avoided the tax if they could and there were masters who avoided paying the duty and thus did not get their apprentices registered. Nevertheless it is estimated that up to one million apprenticeship bindings are recorded in these books, mostly to masters in England, Wales and Scotland, but also a few abroad.

Collection of taxes caused records to be made, hence genealogists are eternally grateful for any government taxation!

The Inland Revenue Apprenticeship Books are divided into two sets according to where the payments were received :

1) *City registers* where the tax was collected in London on apprenticeships anywhere.
2) *Country registers* containing entries, made in London, for the indentures for which duty had been paid to district collectors and sent in batches to London. The *Scots Indentures* are with the country registers but listed separately.

From 1710 to about 1752 the registers contain:

- Number of the indenture.
- Date tax paid and indenture registered. The books record tax paid up to 1811, but the latest indentures registered therein were signed in 1808.
- Name of apprentice and father, or mother if she was widowed, or guardian, and residence. From 1752 to its demise in 1811 the father's name is not given.
- Name and trade of the master, and his residence.
- Term of the indenture.
- Premium paid to the master.

- The amount of tax (duty) paid by the master, assessed at 6d for every £1 up to £50 (2.5%), and 1s for every £1 over £50 (5%). Note that the duty had to be paid within two months of signing the indenture, or double was charged up to a maximum time of one year after the end of the apprenticeship, thus a span of up to eight years. The duty was raised in 1804 to a sliding scale from 15s to £20.

These Inland Revenue records are at the Public Record office in IR 1 (Chart 15) with indexes called *Apprentices Of Great Britain* from 1710-1762 and 1762-1774 in IR 17 (chart 14) and on film (Chart 13). There is no index yet for those for 1775-1811.

CHART 13:
Summary of Inland Revenue Apprenticeship Records 1710-1811 These are on 49 films, starting at 0477624

Date Reg'd	Books (IR 1)	Indexes (IR 17)	Number of Indentures
1710-1752	Father given	Apprentices + Masters on film	250,000
1753-1762	Father not given		
1762-1774		Apprentices on film. Masters on 4 non-circulating fiche 6344869*	
1775-1811		None	250,000 (Gibbens) 750,000 (Camp)

Some county indexes have also been made, for example for Surrey, Sussex and Wiltshire, and these may include entries to 1811.

CHART 14:
Dashwoods from Index to Apprentices of Great Britain IR 17

Book	Folio	Year	Apprentice/Father	Master	Fee
13	194	1733	Christopher/Richard	Jos POTTLE, Blandford, surgeon	£10.10.0
46	94	1719	Jarrett/Richard of Cockley	Thomas VERE, Norwich, merchant	£100.00
2	114	1713	John/Thomas of Coventry, vintner	William LEE, citizen & apothecary	£50.00
22	208	1761	John/Richard	William MASON, New Inn, Mddx gent	£262.10.0
54	151	1762	John/- [sic Joseph]	George FLASHMAN, Exeter, watchmaker	£31.10.0
52	213	1757	Mary/	Mary COOPER, Lynn, milliner	£20.00
12	53	1730	Robert/Richard of Watcombe	John WAY, Lyons Inn, Mddx attorney	£168.00
52	157	1756	Robert/-	George GROSE, Wareham, Dorset, currier	£6.00
18	214	1749	Scampton/Ann	Thomas HOLLINGSWORTH, bookseller Lynn	£17.00
49	84	1729	Thomas, Whippingham/-	William HARDING, Whippingham wheelwright	£6.00
14	162	1736	Thomas/John	Samuel WEDDELL, citizen & draper	£60.00

It can be seen that those after 1752 have no parent given, and that there is an error in the index. The original reads Jos: but the entries above and below are both for John!

CHART 15:
Inland Revenue Apprenticeship Books of Great Britain. Town Registers 1710

[England—there is a separate list of Scots Indentures]

These were all Common Indentures+Counterpart collected by W^m^ Ward to Jn^o^ Ward at Leicester

Rec't date	Master, residence, trade	Apprentice, parent, residence	Apprentice start date	Yrs	Fee & tax
Mar 6	Sam: Selby of Hoebrooke, Derby frame work knitter of London	W^m^ s/o Jn^o^ Woodhouse of Makeny in parish of Duffield, Derbyshire husbandman	Mar 6	7	£3 6d
Mar 14	Sam: Spibye of town & county of Nottingham grocer	John s/o Sam: Spencer of Brewhouse Yard, Nottingham	Mar 14	7	£40 £5
Apr 4	W^m^ Webster of Bingham, Nottinghamshire taylor	Tho: s/o Rob^t^ Chamberlin of Musson, Leicestershire labourer	3 Apr	7	£3 6d

Finding Trade Indentures & Apprenticeships

Some individual indentures survive in family papers and business archives. Collections of trade apprenticeship indentures can be found in many archives, particularly the county record offices and guilds. Many of these, and indexes to them, have been filmed; try *Smith's Inventory* (see Appendix) if they don't show up on the FHLC.

The Society of Genealogists has a collection of 1,525 17th-19th century indentures known as Crisp's Apprentices, but the Trinity House Petitions are now in the Guildhall and are on film. The Corporation of the City of London has the indentures of many of the apprentices who became city freemen. Miscellaneous material on apprentices in the army, navy and merchant marine can be found at the Public Record Office as explained in their leaflet D80.

There has been more written about Londoners' trades but those researching ancestors outside the capital should not dismiss these sources. So many people went up to London to learn their trades or gain their qualifications that these resources apply to the whole country. Several cities and boroughs, such as York, Bristol, Southampton have published their companies' registers, apprenticeships and freedoms and these may be filmed. The Board of Trade merchant seamen's records also contain many apprenticeship indentures. It is always worth checking the local archives to see what they have.

Poor & Charity Apprentices

Pauper apprentices under the care of parish officials were sometimes apprenticed under the 1563 Statute but after the Poor Law Act of 1601, they came under its rules. The overseers of the poor and the churchwardens, with the approval of two Justices of the Peace, could apprentice any child under 14 (16 after 1696) whose parents could not maintain it. This would last until the age of 24 for a boy (amended to 21 in late 17th century (Camp 2001-5, Cole 1997) and 21 or earlier marriage for girl. One was reported in 1747 in Eling, Hampshire apprenticed to a widow in Storrington, Sussex for 20 years, from age 4 until age 24 (Clasby).

Apprentices were often sent to masters in another parish, as once 40 days of an apprenticeship had been served the child obtained settlement in the new parish. Parish officials found this a convenient way of disposing of pauper children from their tax rolls. This is a possibility to be investigated when an ancestor just appears from nowhere in a parish (Litton). This system was carried to extreme during the rise of the northern cotton mills in the late 18th century when some southern England parishes shipped wagonloads of pauper children to the Lancashire, Cheshire, Nottinghamshire and Derbyshire textile and cotton mills who welcomed them as a source of cheap labour. Gibbens (1991, 1996-3) gives many examples of these, and Tate says factories agreed to take *one idiot in every twenty.* London children were being shipped as far away as Glasgow in 1805. These practices were curtailed by acts of 1802 and 1816, and London children could then only

be sent 40 miles from home (Camp 1994-1, who quotes Horn 1993). If the pauper parent objected to his child's placement he would find his own relief money reduced. The small premiums were paid by the overseers of the poor of the child's parish to the master.

Orphans and poor children were typically *bound out* as apprentices and they at least had a home, clothes and food which they might not have had otherwise. Boys would be general or agricultural servants, termed *husbandry*, or put to the *sea service*. It was also possible for the master to turn over the boy to sea service for the remainder of an apprenticeship. They could also go to factory or mine owners (Litton). Some of the more promising ones would be taken by shoemakers or other crafts where they actually advanced in the world in a useful trade.

One such, James Vango, became a top flight weaver and made the silk brocade used for Queen Victoria's wedding dress (McLinden). Girls were typically put to *housewifery* or *women's business* in a home or inn, or to *spinning*, and were essentially domestic drudges for labourers and small farmers, but occasionally went to slightly better positions such as millinery. Again, masters could be fined for not providing adequate conditions, but many abused their charges.

Anyone taking an apprentice in husbandry had to be a *householder* owning and tilling half a ploughland. The parish farmers, tradesmen, shopkeepers and factory owners were expected to each take a share of the pauper apprentices, but in some parishes were allowed to pay a

fine for *not* taking one. One can imagine that some of these children, through malnourishment and ill treatment, were not the best apprentice prospects. Illegitimate boys, might be apprenticed to their biological fathers, either because he genuinely took an interest in them, or because the overseers considered it his duty. Orphans might be apprenticed to uncles or elder brothers, and stepsons to their stepfathers, which ensured that the whole family had the same place of settlement.

To ensure a supply of seamen the master of every ship of 30-50 tons had by law to take an apprentice over 10 years old, one more for the next 50 tons, and another for each additional 100 tons.

When the new Poor Law was introduced in 1834 an attempt was made to abolish the binding of pauper apprentices. This proved unworkable but further legislation was passed to curb the worst abuses. In 1844 these changes were enacted:

- No term was to exceed eight years.
- No child under age nine, or who could not read and write his own name, was to be apprenticed.
- No premium was to be paid unless the child was handicapped; this was widely ignored.
- No-one over 14 was to be apprenticed without his consent.
- No-one under 16 could be bound without his father's consent.

In 1851 further changes included:

- Prosecution of masters who neglected or ill-treated apprentices.
- A register of all apprentices under age 16 was to be kept.
- The relieving officer, or other nominated member of staff, was to visit each apprentice at least twice a year.

For further information on the Old and New Poor Laws refer to the book, *Researching English: Poor Law & Parish Chest Records*. Thompson provides an analysis of Leicester Poor Law Union's relatively humane treatment of its children.

As premiums rose to keep standards up in the trades *charity apprenticeships* became available from various charitable institutions and individual bequests. These assisted poorer parents not on relief but who could not afford such training, the so-called *second poor* (Munkton), find the necessary fees for promising children. Some charities were specifically for apprenticing orphans.

Poor Apprentice Indentures

A pauper apprenticeship might be done simply by an agreement between the parish officials and the master and noted in the vestry minutes. An alternative method was to draw up an indenture before 1757 or any properly stamped deed after 1757.

These were similar to regular apprenticeship indentures but with slightly different wording (charts 16-17). One copy was signed by the master and the Justices of the Peace and kept by the parish.

The other, signed by the master and the churchwardens and overseers of the poor, was presented to the apprentice at the end of his time. Even if you have no pauper apprentices in your ancestry you may find your ancestor's signature on a series of such indentures as a master, magistrate or parish official.

With the cotton apprentices it was common for the factory to require only small children and for there to be a clause in the indenture stating that the child would be turned over at about age 14 to a master who would train them in a worthwhile trade (Gibbens 1991, 1996-3). One wonders how many survived that long.

CHART 16: Pauper Girl Apprenticeship 1792

From Brighthampton, Oxfordshire to Abingdon, Berkshire

This Indenture, made the *twenty fifth* Day of *July* in the *thirty second* Year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord *George the third* by the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, and so forth, and in the Year of our Lord One thousand seven Hundred and *ninety two*.

Witnesseth That ***Thomas Pinnock*** *yeoman one of the Overseers of the Poor* and Churchwardens of the *Township of Brighthampton* in the *County of Oxford* **And** ***Thomas Brown*** *the other* Overseer of the Poor of the said Parish, by and with the consent of his Majesty's Justices of the Peace for the said *County* whose Names are hereunto subscribed, have put and placed, and by these Presents do put and place ***Charlotte Hicks*** a poor Child of the said Parish, Apprentice to ***John Moss*** *of the Parish of St. Helen in the Borough of Abingdon in the County of Berks sack cloth maker* with *him* to dwell and serve from the Day of the Date of these Presents, until the said Apprentice shall accomplish *her* full Age of *twenty one years or be married which shall first happen* according to the Statute in that Case made and provided.

During all which Term the said Apprentice *her* said *Master* faithfully shall serve in all lawful Business, according to *her* Power, Wit, and Ability; and honestly, orderly, and obediently, in all things demean and behave *herself* towards *her* said *Master* and all *his* during the said Term.

And the said *John Moss* for *himself*, *his* Executors, and Administrators, doth Covenant and Grant, to and with the said Church-wardens and Overseers, and every of them, their and every of their Executors and Administrators, and their and every of their Successors, for the Time being, by these Presents, That the said *John Moss* the said Apprentice in the art of *spinning hemp and housewifery* which he now useth, shall and will teach and instruct or cause to be taught and instructed in the best way and manner that he can.

→ Continued on the next page

And shall and will during all the Term aforesaid, find, provide, and allow, unto the said Apprentice, meet, competent, and sufficient Meat, Drink, and Apparel, Lodging, Washing, and all other Things, necessary and fit for an Apprentice.
And also shall and will so provide for the said Apprentice, that *she*
be not any way a Charge to the said Parish, or Parishioners of the same; but of and from all Charge shall and will save the said Parish and Parishioners harmless and indemnified during the said Term.
In Witness whereof, the Parties abovesaid to these present Indentures interchangeably have put their Hands and Seals, the Day and Year above-written.
Sealed and deliver'd in the Presence of us by the above named *Thomas Pinnock.* ***Thos Curtis, J. Newbery***
Sealed and delivered by the above named Thomas Brown in the presence of us. ***John Collingwood, Thos Kimber***
We whose Names are subscribed, Justices of the Peace for the *County of Oxford* aforesaid, (*one whereof is of the Quorum*) do consent to the putting forth of the abovesaid *Charlotte Hicks* Apprentice, according to the intent and Meaning of the above indenture. ***P. Weston, W. Gabell***
Thos Pinnock ***Thos Brown***

CHART 17: Pauper Boy Apprenticeship 1782

Eling, Hampshire to Lymington, Hampshire [Summary]

A similarly worded document dated 7th August 1782 exists for apprenticing ***William Martin*** *aged about ten years*, a poor child of Eling in the county of Southampton to ***William Baker*** *of Lymington, Southampton a mariner*. The churchwardens were ***William Wiles*** and ***John Lane***, and the Overseers *Frances Ing, John Banniston, John Penfold* and ***William Wyatt***. *William Martin* was apprenticed until the age of 21 to the taught the art of a *Mariner*.
The consenting Justices were ***Thos Heathcote*** and ***J. Penton***, and the witnesses ***William Parkin*** and ***Thos Gale***

Charity Apprentice Indentures

Charity apprentices had better conditions than pauper apprentices in their indentures, which usually ensured reasonably fair treatment and a decent trade rather than menial service. The apprenticeship for my 5th great grandfather John Pantlin (christened 21 Feb 1730 in Send, Surrey) started around the time of his 14th birthday and was paid for by Anne Hayne's Charity (chart 18). He would have been free on 25th Dec 1750.

CHART 18: Charity Apprenticeship 1744

THIS INDENTURE Tripartite made the **Twenty First Day of January** in the Eighteenth year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord George the second by the Grace of God of Great Britain, France and Ireland King, Defender of the Faith and so forth and in the year of our Lord **One Thousand seven hundred and forty four BETWEEN Thomas Burkeredge** minister of the parish of Send in the County of Surrey, **Robert Boughton** and **John Hind** Church Wardens of the said Parish of Send of the first part, **John Pantlin the Elder** a poor man of the said Parish of Send and **John Pantlin the Younger** son of the said John Pantlin the Elder of the second part, and George Marsh of Ripley in the said County Surry Taylor of the Third part. **WHEREAS** One **Anne Hayne** late of London widow in and by her last Will and Testament bearing Date on or about the Tenth Day of January which was in the year of our Lord one Thousand seven hundred and two Gave to the Minister and Churchwardens of the said Parish of Send the Sum of Three Hundred pounds to be by them laid out in the Purchase of Lands of Inheritance so that the profitts thereof might be laid out in putting forth poor mens' Children Apprentices, which said money hath been laid out by the preceding Minister and Church wardens in the purchase of such Lands as the said Will Directs

NOW THIS INDENTURE WITNESSETH that the said **John Pantlin the Younger** hath by and with the Consent as well of the said Minister and Churchwardens as of his said Father put himself apprentice to the said **George Marsh** to Learn his Art or Trade of a Taylor and with him his Executors and Administrators after the Manner of an Apprentice to serve from the Twenty Fifth Day of December now last, for and during and unto the full End and Term of seven years and fully to be Compleat and Ended. During which Term the said Apprentice his said Master faithfully shall and will Serve, His secrets keep and his commands Gladly do. He shall do no Damage to his said Master nor see it to be Done by others but to his power shall forthwith Give Notice to him thereof.

→ Continued from the last page

The Goods of his said master he shall not waste nor Lend them to any Hurt. Matrimony during the Term aforesaid he shall not Contract. He shall neither Buy nor Sell without his Masters Leave. Taverns, Inns or Alehouses he shall not Haunt, at Cards, Dice or any other unlawful Game he shall not play whereby his said Master may be Damaged, nor from the Service of his Master Day or Night shall absent himself but in all things as an Honest and faithfull Apprentice shall Demean himself to his said Master and all his Family During the said Term. **AND** the said **George Marsh** in Consideration of the Sum of **Twelve Pounds** of Lawfull money of Great Britain to him before the Ensealing hereof in Hand paid by the said Minister and Churchwardens being part of the Rents and profitts of the Lands purchased with the money so Given by the said Will of the said Anne Hayne as aforesaid, The receipt whereof he the said **George Marsh** Doth hereby Acknowledge, **DOTH** hereby undertake, promise and Agree for himself, his Executors and Administrators to and with the said Minister and Churchwardens That he the said George Marsh his said apprentice in the Art or Trade of Taylor, which he now useth, shall and will Teach and Instruct or cause to be Taught and Instructed, And that he and they will find and allow to the said Apprentice necessary and sufficient Wearing Apparrell of all Sorts, meat, drink, washing, Lodging, Phisick and all other necessarys During the said Term, And that the said Apprentice at the End of the said Term shall be well and sufficiently clothed with apparell of all Sorts. **IN WITNESS** whereof the parties abovenamed to these presents have hereunto Sett their hands and Seals the Day and Year first above written.

George Marsh [Seal]

Sealed and Delivered, being first duly Stamped by the abovenamed George Marsh in the presence of *Barty Hone, J. Chatfield*

Rec'd the Day & Year above written of and from the above named Minister & Churchwardens the Sum of Twelve pounds being the Consideration money above mentioned where by them paid unto me.

I say received by me. *George Marsh*

Wittness Bartty Hone, J. Chatfield.

[Original in Surrey County Record Office Spelling original but some punctuation added. Only the master and witnesses signed.]

Finding Pauper & Charity Indentures

Charity Apprenticeships could be with the records of the charity, and application to local archives would enable such organizations to be discovered. If they were used for paupers or less well-off families then they could be in the parish chest material. *Poor Apprenticeships* will be in the vestry minutes and in the records and accounts of the Overseers of the Poor for the child's originating parish. These will be found in the FHLC under ENGLAND-COUNTY-TOWN-POORHOUSES, POORLAW ETC.

Indexes & Lists of Poor & Charity Apprenticeships

These can be found in:

- Vestry minutes and Churchwardens' accounts.
- Overseers of the Poor minutes and accounts.
- Workhouse minutes.
- Boards of Guardians of the Poor Minute Books
- Registers of Poor Indentures kept by larger parishes, for example Mitcham, Surrey Parish Poor Apprenticeship Book on film 1470829.
- Factory Apprentice Registers, especially in the northern cotton trade.
- Petty Sessions records, for example 18 children ages 10-13 from Deptford, Kent to Holywell, Fintshire in 1792 (Highley).

Their names and details will be in at least one of these, if they survive, even if the individual indentures have been destroyed. Some of these records were indexed contemporaneously (chart 19 and 20), and there are also modern indexes for many parishes available from Family History Societies and county archives. Bedfordshire lead the way with a county-wide book index of all surviving poor law documents; others such as Surrey are on CD. As pauper apprenticeships were not subject to the Inland Revenue tax imposed from 1710-1811, they do not appear in those records (IR 1) or their indexes (IR 17).

CHART 19:
Halifax Masters taking Pauper Apprentices 1800-1801 (Film 1551141)

Date of Indenture	Masters Name & Trade	Apprentice Name
Mar 19 1800	Received of John Greenwood the sum of ten Pounds in lieu of having an apprentice	
Apr 4	Received of Thomas Gregory the sum of ten Pounds in lieu of having an apprentice	
Apr 28	Luke Greenwood dresser	William Holden
D°	John Gurr esq gun maker	Thomas Oates
Jul 21	William Gregory grocer	Sarah Bates
Jul 21	Thomas Gledhill currier	Esther Beverly
Jul 21	Thomas Greenwood cotton manufacturer	Joseph Nicholl
Jan 7 1801	George Green comb maker Paid the fine in lieu of having a Parish apprentice	
Aug 10	Miss Mary Grimshaw P^{d} the fine in lieu of having a Parish Apprentice	

CHART 20:
Extract from Index of Halifax Pauper Apprentices 1783-1828

Date of Indenture	Apprentice Name	Masters Name & Trade
1820 Aug 19	Gaukroger, Joseph	Smith, Thomas coalminer
1828 Mar 8	Gaukroger, William	Wiseman, James
1827 Sep 29	Gibson, Charles	Crapper, John rope maker
1787 Aug 8	Gill, James	Sokald, Josh tailor
1831 Apr 30	Gill, John	Townsend, John carpenter
1807 Aug 1	Gill, William	Webster, Jno (Bradfield) paper maker
1785 Oct 17	Gilpin, Betty	Gaukroger, Josh farmer
1803 Nov 7	Gledhill, Ann	Werwall, Wm hosier
1830 Oct 30	Gledhill, Harriot	Child, Ann milliner
1828 Mar 8	Gledhill, Mary	Worstenholme, Isaac innkeeper
1816 Apr 18	Gledhill, William	Gledhill, Eli painter
1821 Mar 3	Gordon, Elizabeth	Wilson, Nicholas cotton manufacturer
1823 Dec 9	Green, Edward	Farrer, John hatter
1807 Aug 9	Green, John	Green, Isaac butcher
1826 Mar 25	Greenwood Abraham	Wainhouse, Nathaniel innkeeper
1830 Sep 11	Greenwood, Mattw	Stooles, Benj. (Southowram) coachmaker
1821 Dec 8	Greenwood, Noah	Sykes, Isaac cordwainer

Good general references on the whole subject of apprenticeships are those by Hey, Fitzhugh, Herber, PRO leaflet D80, Golland, Litton, and Gibbens (1996-3). Item 2 on film 0599736 has the enticing title *List of English Apprentices and Freemen's Records*; it contains both trade and poor apprentices but is disappointing as it is a 1967 typescript and has been superceded by more modern county and parish listings. The law relevant to apprenticeships was discussed by

Chitty in 1812. Disputes between masters and apprentices were taken to the Quarter Sessions and details of the complaint and the outcome are in the records, which are usually filmed.

Licences to Practice

Archbishop' & Bishops' Licences

Prior to 1858, and sometimes discontinued before that date, certain professions needed a licence to commence their practice from a bishop, and for ecclesiastics sometimes an archbishop. Those affected included:

- Church of England beneficed ministers and unbeneficed preachers from 1604, and some from 1511.
- Midwives, physicians, surgeons from at least 1604 until about 1750.
- Parish clerks from at least 1604 until about 1900.
- Schoolmasters from at least 1604 until about 1850.

Quarter Sessions Licences

The secular authorities required certain tradesmen to be licensed annually in order to exercise some measure of control over them. This was done mainly through the magistrates at the Quarter Sessions. (Camp 1994-1, Herber).

Amongst those who had to be licensed, at Quarter Sessions unless noted otherwise, were:

- Barge & wherry owners with boats over 13 tons from 1795-1871.
- Brokers of all kinds except pawnbrokers from 1707 to 1884 through the Court of Aldermen of the City of London.
- Brothels in mediaeval times.
- Chimney sweeps needed annual police certificates from 1875.
- Drovers from 1562-1772.
- Establishments having music & dancing since 1752.
- Freemasons from 1799 until about 1900.
- Gamekeepers from 1710 to about 1860.
- Gun owners having property from 1389-1831, and after that anyone could get a game certificate.
- Itinerant salesmen (badgers, hawkers, higglers, kidders & pedlars) from 1562-1772. Pedlars were licensed by the police from 1871, and hawkers (with a horse) from 1888.
- Pawnbrokers needed Revenue licences from 1786, and magistrates certificates from 1872.
- Printers from 1799 to 1869.
- Publicans from 1552 at Petty Session and 1753 from Quarter Sessions. Not required from about 1830-1869 except for beer shops from 1840.
- Shopkeepers' licences prior to 1772 may be with itinerant's licences. Sellers of game were licensed from 1831; explosives & fireworks from 1860; and petroleum (gas) from 1862 (but from 1871 by local authorities); perishable goods from 1860 but bakehouses from 1863.

- Slaughterhouses from 1786.
- Soapmakers from 1833.

Licenses will typically state name, residence, date of issue and particulars of the trade involved and perhaps age. Further discussion and examples are given in the relevant categories in this book.

Schools & Universities

Oxford was founded in the 12th century and Cambridge in the 13th century—their buildings were of stone. The first of the *redbrick universities* were Durham in 1832 and London in 1836, followed by several others in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. The place to start is the *university alumni registers* for Oxford 1500-1886 (Foster 1887-1892), and Cambridge from early times to 1900 (Venn & Venn), and the many others listed briefly by Hey and more extensively in the Society of Genealogists guide (1996), and the FHLC under ENGLAND-OXFORDSHIRE-OXFORD [OR OTHER PLACE AND UNIVERSITY NAME] - SCHOOLS. Both of the latter also have extensive collections of student registers for public (private) or grammar schools which are useful adjuncts for previous education and students' background. Local public libraries and archives will have relevant publications for their areas, and Titford's seven-part guide (1998-9) is essential for complete coverage.

ASSOCIATIONS

There have been associations of people with a common occupation since mediaeval times. The family historian is wise to ask:

⇨ ***What kinds were there for different occupations?***

⇨ ***What did they do?***

⇨ ***What records benefitting genealogy did they make, do these still exist and are they accessible?***

The main types of organization were:

- *Guilds and livery companies* from early times in all occupations. These had largely disappeared by the early 17th century but a few persist even today.
- *Trade Unions* for trades and manual occupations from the 1880s, although some have earlier roots.
- *Professional Associations* from the 19th century for services and professions.

At various times and in different places they:

- Regulated standards of trade and workmanship as well as sale and distribution of goods.
- Created locally-based occupational monopolies to reduce competition and keep profits up.
- Negotiated pay and benefits.
- Provided education through apprenticeships, articling and special courses.
- Provided social activities.
- Provided welfare services.

Guilds & Freemen

Freemen, Burgesses & Citizens

A freeman of a company was a person who had served the full term of an apprenticeship to a master craftsman or tradesman belonging to that company and had been admitted to the company. A freeman of a corporate town, a burgess of a borough or a citizen of a city was eligible to work at his trade in that place and vote in corporate elections. The three terms are commonly used interchangeably to denote anyone who had gained the freedom of a city, town or borough by:

- *Servitude*—apprenticeship to a person who was already a freeman.
- *Patrimony*—by inheritance from the father if born legitimately when he was a freeman.
- *Redemption*—by payment of a fee.
- *Marriage* to a widow or daughter born of a freeman was also possible in some places.
- Occasionally by *honorary conferment*.

The father's name is usually given in records of the first two cases, and details of relationship in the fourth. It is most interesting and quite possible to track the tradesmen through his apprenticeship, freedom of the company and town, annual payment of dues, then employing journeymen and as master to a succession of apprentices, and perhaps to holding office in his company or even city. Women, unskilled men, and those employed by tradesmen and craftsmen were unlikely to have been freemen. A good general source is Camp (1998).

How to Discover the Company

- Before the early 18th century, especially, the person's occupation is a strong clue.
- The phrase *citizen and (for example) carpenter of London* in any reference to him gives his company. If he was just *carpenter of London* this is his occupation and does not indicate a company.
- *The Apprentices of Great Britain* (Inland Revenue index) gives names and companies of masters and the latter are indexed from 1710-1774.
- Webb's *London Apprentices* indexes both apprentices and masters from early times to at least 1800. Each book is devoted to masters of one company who took apprentices in their individual occupations.
- A Poll Book which shows both the trade practiced and the company to which the voter belonged.
- The Corporation of the City of London has complete records from 1786, and almost complete from 1681, of all 300,000 or so company members who became freemen of the City of London, and these are indexed. For those who took out freedom of the City of London after 1940 the Clerk of the Chamberlain's Court will search the register of freemen for a five-year period and for a fee will send a copy of the details.
- Card index of freedom entries in the *Repertories* (Court of Aldermen proceedings) 1494-1649 at Corporation of City of London.
- Boyd's *Inhabitants of London* (238 volumes) and its Index (27 vols) gives many company members from 15th-19th centuries, being strongest for 16th-17th centuries. This work containing nearly 60,000 family

group sheets was formerly referred to as *Citizens of London* but it contains much more than just freemen. On 135 films starting at 0094515.
- Guildhall Library's file of *London Inhabitants* is fairly complete for London freemen from 1700.
- City, borough or county archives or record offices usually have indexes and reference books regarding freemen in their area.

Livery Companies of the City of London

History of Livery Companies

The Saxon and early mediaeval history of guilds have been well-described by Pooley. Much was made of the religious association prior to the Reformation but the trade aspect took precedence thereafter. All but two, (Parish Clerks and Watermen & Lightermen), of the *city of London guilds* are also known as *livery companies* from their specific uniforms or *liveries* worn on special occasions. They acquired premises called *halls* for business purposes and feasts. Most of the original halls were destroyed during the Great Fire in 1666, and the remaining 35 were destroyed or damaged in WWII, but restoration has been undertaken on a few.

There were also other groups similar to guilds but which did not have charters, for example the Association of Fellowship Porters and the Society of Tacklehouse & Ticket Porters. The earliest charter was for the Weavers in 1130, followed by the Saddlers and then the Bakers. There were 25 guilds with charters by 1500, and twelve of these were powerful enough to

have special privileges and electoral powers. They are the *Great Twelve City of London Companies*, in order of precedence:

1	MERCERS	7	MERCHANT TAILORS
2	GROCERS	8	HABERDASHERS
3	DRAPERS	9	SALTERS
4	FISHMONGERS	10	IRONMONGERS
5	GOLDSMITHS	11	VINTNERS
6	SKINNERS	12	CLOTHWORKERS

The 13th-14th centuries was the great period of guild prosperity and dominance in city politics, and there were 111 guilds by 1423. In the next century quarrels between the overlapping interests of too many guilds eventually lead to amalgamations, for example the Pursers and Glovers united then joined the Leather-sellers, as did the Pouchmakers, forming a much stronger Leather-sellers guild. Many other mergers resulted in more vigorous bodies. There was also a huge influx of men seeking work in the city, creating a large class of journeymen between the masters and their apprentices. Their dues and increased trade contributed to the strength and wealth of many of the companies. However the guilds became divided into two opposing groups—those who lived by crafts and those by merchandising—with bloodshed sometimes resulting. During the late 14th and 15th centuries the livery guilds were ruled by masters who were generally aldermen with mercantile ambitions. The Mercers and other trading companies were quick to take advantage of the prospects of foreign trade especially by fitting out fleets of ships (*merchantmen*), the first and most

famous being the *Merchant Adventurers*, a branch of the Mercers Guild trading in Holland and Germany enriching all parties. Other such trading companies were: the *Muscovite* Company (Russia); *Turkey* or *Levant Company* (eastern Mediterranean); *Royal African Company; Merchants of Spain; French Merchants of Virginia; South Sea Company*; others trading with *Guinea* and the *Canaries*; the *Hudson's Bay Company* (Canada); and the greatest of all—the *East India Company* which was to bring England her Indian Empire. Two less successful ventures in which the City Companies played a prominent, if unwilling, part were the *Ulster* and *Virginia Plantations*.

Activities of Livery Companies

The power and wealth of the city livery companies was reflected in their contributions to the army and navy from early times until the 17th century. Crafts declined as mechanization advanced during the 18th century but the wealth of the companies was in London property which had only increased in value so, although they were no longer a vital force in their trades, the companies could still dispense charity and hold festivities, such as the Lord Mayor's Procession and Banquet. By the mid-20th century only a few of the London livery companies were now involved in their original trades, notably:

- The Fishmongers continued to manage the Billingsgate fish market, and had important duties regarding freshwater, crab and lobster fisheries.
- The Goldsmiths still assay and stamp gold and silver articles at their hall, whence the expression

hall-marked. They also certify metal used in coinage at the mint.

- Many of the minor companies have founded scholarships or supported training schools in the technical aspects of their trades, and these include the Spectacle Makers, Carpenters, Leather-sellers, Cooks, Farriers and Plumbers.

Perhaps stimulated by a government enquiry in the 1880s the surviving companies applied themselves even more diligently to their charitable purposes. The companies had always been known for the foundation and support of schools which include:

- Aldenham (Brewers)
- Aske's and William Jones' (Haberdashers)
- Gresham's (Fishmongers)
- Mercers' and St. Paul's (Mercers)
- Merchant Taylors' (Merchant Taylors)
- Bancroft's and Howell's Girls, (Drapers)
- Oundle (Grocers)
- Tonbridge (Skinners)

In higher education the *City and Guilds Institute* was founded as a joint venture between the Corporation of London and the livery companies in 1880. It promotes technical education and research and has founded a number of technical, engineering and art colleges, many now parts of universities, and runs well-respected certificate programmes. The city guilds have supplied innumerable scholarships, almshouses, pension charities, and apprenticeship trusts and supported others such as hospitals.

Membership of Livery Companies

Each company has two types of members—the *livery*, entitled to wear the company's gown on state occasions, and the *freemen* (*yeomen* or *bachelors*), who are not but who may be promoted to the livery as vacancies occur. Freemen of a London company were supposed to be at least 24, (but in practice were often only 21), and have the right to the freedom of the City of London.

Distinctions amongst the freemen include:

- *Journeymen* who worked for other freemen by the day for wages. They had less security but some choice as to where and when they worked. This tended to be a stage between apprenticeship and a permanent business of their own.
- *Masters* or *householders* ran their own business and took apprentices.
- *Foreign brothers* were those admitted from the provinces by redemption.
- *Stranger brothers* or *alien brothers* were those admitted by redemption from overseas.

A company is run by a *master* and two to four *wardens*, and governed by the *court of assistants* composed mainly of ex-wardens and masters, whose chief executive officer is the *clerk* and having a general factotum called the *beadle*. The *Lord Mayor of London* is the chief liveryman of the city. The company's charter will indicate the geographical area from which it could admit members. Some only took those in the City of London, others within a radius of two to ten miles, whilst at least the Apothecaries, Barber-Surgeons, Framework Knitters, Goldsmiths,

Gunmakers, Stationers, and Tobacco Pipe Makers took provincial members. These rules were not always adhered to, but few craftsmen and tradesmen who lived outside London would have been members of London companies even if they had apprenticed there. In some companies *women* could be bound as apprentices, single women (particularly milliners) and widows (especially those carrying on their husband's business) could be admitted to the freedom, but lost it upon marriage. Widows of freemen were free by courtesy without formal admission.

Until the early 18th century a man would have been a freeman of the company representing his own trade, but this gradually changed until by the mid-19th century it was common for a man wishing to run a business within the city to belong to any company. He might be Thomas Brown, butcher on a census, but in his will described as Thomas Brown, citizen and draper of London, the latter indicating that he had the freedom of the city by being a member of the Drapers' Company. Wealthy men, especially merchants, favoured the twelve great companies and some companies, such as Wheelwrights and Spectaclemakers in the early 19th century, attracted men from a wide variety of occupations, perhaps because their fees were lower. Smaller companies have amalgamated or been dissolved over the years, and in addition and rarely, a man could be a freeman of more than one company, or change (*translate*) from one to another. It is therefore not a simple matter to find records of his apprenticeship, freedom or annual company activities.

Records of Livery Companies

The Guildhall Library *Guide* (1989) details surviving records of every company, and they have a good downloadable leaflet online at website: http://ihr.sas.ac.uk/gh/livdet.html. Aldous has much useful material and there are a number of published histories of the individual companies in London and elsewhere. With respect to records the companies can be divided into four groups:

- Nine retain their own records (addresses in Appendix). *Clothworkers, Drapers, Goldsmiths, Leather-sellers, Master Mariners, Mercers, Saddlers, Salters,* and *Stationers* (some records for Stationers are at St. Bride Printing Library).
- Chart 12 lists the 76 companies and two societies whose surviving non-current records are at the Guildhall Library.
- Two companies' records no longer exist *Silkthrowers*, and *Soapmakers*.
- 25 companies have been created since 1940 and retain their own records. *Actuaries, Air Pilots & Air Navigators, Arbitrators, Builders Merchants, Chartered Accountants, Chartered Architects, Chartered Secretaries & Administrators, Chartered Surveyors, Constructors, Engineers, Environmental Cleaners, Farmers, Firefighters, Fuellers, Furniture Makers, Hackney Carriage Drivers, Information Technologists, Insurers, Launderers, Lightmongers, Marketors, Scientific Instrument Makers, Solicitors, Water Conservators,* and *World Traders*.

The most useful records for genealogy include:

- Apprenticeship enrollments in the register books.
- Records of admission to membership usually give the name of the freeman, the date and method of admission, and sometimes his address. If admission was by servitude details of master, dates etc. may be given; if by patrimony the father's name; and if by redemption the fee paid.
- Lists of freemen are usually alphabetical and may have address, occupation and numbers of apprentices taken.
- Quarterage books recording membership fees paid each quarter are typically alphabetical and may also have address, occupation, period of membership and date of death.
- Most companies kept a separate series of stamp duty freedom registers 1694-1949 recording name, date & method of admission and duty paid.
- Lists of liverymen, court of assistants and officers such as masters, wardens and stewards.
- Biographical dictionaries of company freemen and officials (Aldous lists many).

There are many other records such as court minutes and wardens' accounts which may give more details about specific men, and may pre-date or fill gaps in the registers. A minority of people would be found in records of the regulation of the company's trade which refer to a man's workmanship or conduct, or in records of pensioners and almspeople giving details of those who needed assistance later in life.

Researchers should be aware that these records are voluminous and not always indexed, so lengthy searches may not always be rewarded. Some of the company records are on film, for example those of the *Carmen's Company* 1666-1942 on 7 films starting at 2068137; and the *Pewterers' Company* 1451-1934 on 31 films starting at 1473415. Other lists of Londoners can be useful, for example, the members of the city livery companies for London have been extracted from the returns of the *1641 Poll Tax*, (nothing to do with the Poll Books mentioned earlier), at the Public Record Office (Dale & Barrington). Records of others, such as the merchant trading companies, are located at the Public Record Office, for example the *Levant Company* is in SP 105.

Freedom of the City of London

Aldous estimates that in the past 300 years about 300,000 mostly ordinary working people received the freedom of the city of London. Records survive from 1681-1940 and if a person worked or lived within the 'square mile' of the city, or had links with it, especially before the 1850s he (and sometimes she) probably had the freedom. Before 1835 they would have first needed to be a freeman of a city company. Background on the city itself and its governance is given concisely by Aldous, who also has the best account of the whole subject of freedom of the city and an excellent list of useful publications. Records of freedom of the city, which act as an overall index to London company records, are in the Corporation of London Record Office (CLRO), which is a separate unit at the Guildhall. Indexes, or *alphabets*, exist for 1681-1682,

1688-Oct 1776, and 1784-1915. Aldous gives clear instructions on making a search at the Guildhall for City of London freemen.

A City of London freeman had the right to vote in parliamentary and civic elections, was free from the navy press gang and had certain privileges respecting imprisonment and trial, and exempt from tolls payable on animals brought into the city for sale. (The latter provoked the legend about driving one's sheep over London Bridge). The various *liberties* and *extra-parochial precincts* situated around the city of London were exempt from its restrictions and hence attracted numerous foreigners and others who were not citizens of London.

The city *common serjeant* presided over the *court of orphans* which administered the personal estate of deceased freemen. His records include over 2,000 *orphans' inventories* from 1662-1742 and 1764-1774 with indexes and are most useful. *King's Freemen* were discharged servicemen and their families, who did not have to be free in order to carry on a trade in any town in England & Wales provided they had obtained a certificate of entitlement to do so. They were issued from 1784-1873 (although 1815-1854 records are missing) and include soldier's discharge documents and much else. About 4,000 of these records exist for London at CLRO and have been indexed (Aldous). Cook (1997) has a short article about them, with examples.

Guilds Outside London

Town & City Guilds

Gazetteers can be consulted to find out whether a place was a city or borough at a certain date. There were no livery companies outside London, only guilds. Many cities such as Shrewsbury had many active guilds representing several occupations.

Sheffield had an extremely powerful *Cutlers Company*, reflecting the importance of this trade there and a history, which includes the apprenticeships 1624-1791, is available (Leader).

The records of the master, pilots and seamen of the *Trinity House* of Newcastle 1580-1900 are on 6 films starring at 1545896. Smaller towns may have had only one *craft or merchant guild* to which all freemen belonged and which was authorized to regulate trade in their town. Thus, the guild of most 14th century market towns would have included at least one pewterer (Hull).

In 1996 there were 18 cities and towns in England with surviving guilds, ten in Scotland which are not dealt with here, but none in Wales. A brief history of each of these is given by Lane, from which chart 21 is derived; those listed as just *freemen* would be composed of all freemen in that area.

CHART 21:
Extant English Guilds in 1996

ENGLAND	Freemen of England [comprised of freemen of 58 towns], *Secretary, Howard B. Pate, 611 Old Chester Road, RockFerry, Birkenhead L42 4NN*
ALNWICK	Black & White Smiths; Butchers; Carpenters & Joiners; Coopers; Cordwainers & Shoemakers; Fullers & Walkers; Skinners & Glovers; Tailors; Tanners; Weavers. *J. Mattison (Chamberlain), 32 Swansfield, Park Road, Alnwick, Northumberland.*
BERWICK ON TWEED	Guild of Freemen of Berwick on Tweed, *J. Reay, Secretary, 9 Church Street, Berwick on Tweed, Northumberland*
BRISTOL	Society of Merchant Venturers *The Treasurer, Merchants Hall, The Promenade, Bristol BS8 3NH*
CARLISLE	Butchers; Cordwainers; Merchants; Skinners & Glovers. *The Clerk, Harp Hill, Armathwaite, Carlisle, Cumbria CA4 9PW*
CHESTER	Bakers; Barber-Surgeons; Brewers; Bricklayers; Butchers; Cappers, Pinners, Wiredrawers & Linendrapers; Cordwainers & Shoemakers; Fletchers, Bowyers, Coopers & Stringers; Goldsmiths; Innkeepers; Joiners, Carvers & Turners; Masons; Mercers, Ironmongers, Grocers & Apothecaries; Merchant Drapers; Merchant Tailors; Painters, Glaziers, Embroiderers & Stationers; Saddlers & Curriers; Skinners & Feltmakers; Smiths, Cutlers & Plumbers; Tanners; Weavers; Wrights, Slaters, Tilers, Daubers & Thatchers; Wet & Dry Glovers. *The Clerk, Freemen and Guilds of Chester, The Guildhall, Chester, Cheshire*
CIRENCESTER	Weavers, *Senior Warden, Bryan Berkley, Pinehurst, 52a Somerfield Road, Cirencester, Gloucestershire GL7 1TX*
COVENTRY	Broadweavers & Clothiers, *The Clerk, Seymour Smith & Co, Solicitors, Queens House, Queens Road, Coventry CV1 3JN*
	Cappers & Feltmakers; Drapers, *The Clerk, Old Bablake, Hill Street, Coventry CV1 4AN*
	Fullers, Clerk & Sumner, *23 Bayley Lane, Coventry CV1 5RJ*
	Mercers, *The Clerk, J.H. Cattell, Wattern & Co., Queens House, Queens Road, Coventry CV1 3DR*
	Worsted Weavers, *The Clerk, Browetts, 23 Bayley Lane, Coventry CV1 5RJ*

DURHAM	Barbers; Butchers; Cordwainers; Curriers; Drapers; Joiners; Masons & Plumbers; Tailors; *T. Heron, Chairman of Wardens,* *33 Long Acres, Gilesgate, Durham DH1 1JF*
EXETER	Weavers, Fullers & Shearmen, *The Clerk,* *18 Cathedral Yard, Exeter, CV1 5RJ*
KINGSTON UPON HULL	Masters, Pilots & Seamen of the Trinity House, *The Secretary, Trinity House,* *Trinity House Lane, Hull HU1 2JG*
NEWCASTLE UPON TYNE	Bakers & Brewers, *The Hon. Treasurer,* *4 Parklands, Hamsterley Hill, Tyne & Wear NE39 1HH*
	Barber-Surgeons together with Wax and Tallow Chandlers, *Steward, J.T. Maule esq., Green End Cottage, 1 North Side, Kirkheaton, Nr. Belsay, Northumberland NE19 2DG*
	Bricklayers, *H.T. Ward, 3 Beanley Crescent, Tynemouth, Tyne & Wear NE30 2RZ*
	Butchers, *R. Dodds Ltd., West Jesmond Avenue, Jesmond, Newcastle upon Tyne NE2 3ET*
	Colliers, Paviors & Carriagemen, *Steward,* *H.D. Wilson Jnr., 18 Ripley Drive, Barns Park,* *Cramlington, Northumberland NE23 7XA*
	Coopers, *G.P. McGill,* *36 St. Mary Magdalene Hospital,* *Claremont Road, Newcastle upon Tyne NE2 4NE*
	Cordwainers, *Senior Steward, G.W. Clark, 22 Delaval Road, Whitley Bay, Northumberland*
	Curriers, *E.B. Turnbull, 30 Holystone Crescent, High Heaton, Newcastle upon Tyne NE7 7UE*
	Goldsmiths, *W.G. Frizzle, 174 Westgarth, Westerhope, Newcastle upon Tyne NE5 4PJ*
	Hostmen [lodging house keepers], *The Clerk,* *S.T. Alderson, Cross House, Westgate Road,* *Newcastle upon Tyne NE99 1SB*
	House Carpenters, *Steward,* *H.E. Tate Esq., 288 Stamfordham Road,* *Newcastle upon Tyne NE5 2LB*
	Joiners, *Senior Steward, G.D. Robson,* *4 Burnside Road, Newcastle upon Tyne NE3 2DU*
	Mariners, Master Mariners, *Trinity House,* *Broad Chase, Newcastle upon Tyne NE1 3DQ*
	Masons, Warden, *D. Powell esq.,* *26 Whyndyke, High Heworth, Gateshead 10*

	Merchant Adventurers, *The Clerk, Merchant Adventurers Company, Milburn House, Newcastle Upon Tyne*
	Millers, *Steward, W.H. Cooper, Causey House, Elmfield Road, Gosforth, Newcastle upon Tyne NE3 4AY*
	Plumbers, Glaziers, Pewterers & Painters, *The Secretary, Mr. S.T. Alderson, 11 Woodmans Way, Whickham, Tyne & Wear NE16 5TR*
	Ropemakers, *Steward, H.D. Wilson, Barns Park, Cramlington, Northumberland NE23 7XA*
	Scriveners, *Clerk, Charles Wilkie-Smith, Davies-Bell & Read, 27 Ridley Place, Newcastle upon Tyne NE1 8LE*
	Shipwrights, *Senior Steward, Ian F. Miller, 20 Farringdon Road, Tynemouth HE30 3EP*
	Skinners & Glovers, *J. Angus, 2 Hillhead Road, Newcastle upon Tyne NE5 5AP*
	Smiths, *Senior Steward, J.I. Jobling, 40 St. Mary Magdalene Est, Claremont Road, Newcastle upon Tyne NE2 4NN*
	Tanners, *Chairman, F.R. Sutherland, 105 Edgehill, Darras Hall, Ponteland, Newcastle upon Tyne NE20 9JR*
	Taylors, *Chairman, R.L. Foggin, 25 The Paddock, Walbottle, Newcastle upon Tyne NE15 8JG*
	Upholsterers, Tinplate Workers & Stationers, *Senior Steward, R.A. Coatsworth, 28 St. Mary Magdalene Hospital, Claremont Road, Newcastle upon Tyne NE2 4NN*
	Weavers, *Senior Steward, L.F. Skirving esq., 150 Ennerdale Road, Wlakerdene, Newcastle upon Tyne NE6 4LJ*
OXFORD	Freemen of the City, *R.A.J. Earl, Hon. Archivist, 171 Headley Way, Headington, Oxford OX3 7ST*
PRESTON	The Guild Merchant, [no address available]
RICHMOND, YORKSHIRE	Fellmongers, *The Clerk, Burgage House, 1 Millgate, Richmond, North Yorkshire N10 4JL*
	Mercers, Grocers and Haberdashers, *Steward, Burgage House, 1 Millgate, Richmond, North Yorkshire N10 4JL*
SHEFFIELD	Cutlers of Hallamshire, *The Clerk, Cutler's Hall, Sheffield S1 1HG*
SHREWSBURY	Drapers, *The Clerk, 12 Princess Street, Shrewsbury, Shropshire SX1 1LP*
WORCESTER	Clothiers, *Treasurer, 5 Deansway, Worcester, Hereford & Worcester WR1 2JG*
YORK	Building [Trades], *The Clerk, c/o Dept of Architecture, 9 St. Leonard's Place, York YO1 2ET*

Butchers, *The Clerk, 1 St. Saviourgate, York YO1 2NQ*
Cordwainers, *The Clerk, Lendal House, 11 Lendal, York YO1 2AQ*
Freemen, *The Clerk, 29 Albermarle Street, York YO2 1EW*
Merchant Adventurers, *The Clerk, Merchant Adventurers Hall, Fossgate, York YO1 2XD*

Town & City Freemen

Names of city freemen, also called burgesses or citizens, were registered annually on a series of rolls, which will be at a local archive, and some have been printed and will certainly be in the local library. They include (from early times to at least 1800 except where noted): Canterbury (to 1835), Chester, Coventry (from 1781), Exeter (1266-1967), Gloucester (1641-1838), Great Yarmouth, Grimsby (from 1780), Guildford, King's Lynn, Lancaster, Leicester, Newcastle upon Tyne (1409-1710), Norwich (1548-1752), Oxford and York (1272-1986), and are often on film.

The best registers list:

- ✓ Date of admission to the freedom of the city.
- ✓ Name of the freeman.
- ✓ Name and occupation of his father.
- ✓ Name of the master if freedom gained by servitude.

It has been estimated that about half of adult males were freemen, but some evaded getting on the lists by not paying their dues, and many lists no longer exist. Family descent can often be traced for a number of generations since the rolls often indicated the relationship of the applicant to a previously admitted freeman. The early freemen of Wells are discussed by Doddrell, and a 200-year run of freemen of Gloucester by Prosser. Before 1835 only freemen were legally allowed to trade and vote in borough and parliamentary elections. Where there is no printed list of freemen it pays to check the printed *Poll Books* which show those who voted in parliamentary elections in specific years.

Gibson & Rogers (1990) *Directory of Poll Books 1696-1872* lists what is available and many are filmed and a number are now available on fiche or CD. The lists may include only name and parish, but often also the occupation, address and qualification to vote. Lawton presents a case study on the use of burgess rolls and poll books. The later *Electoral Rolls* are less useful for establishing the identity of freemen as they are based on property qualifications.

Clark (1993) states that freemen are still being admitted in 58 towns in England & Wales and there are perhaps 80,000 living freemen. Trusts to preserve freemen rights have been established in places where a borough has ceased to exist as part of local government reform, for example the Llantrisant Town Trust of South Wales.

This trend will increase with the replacement of county, borough and district councils by unitary authorities in the 1990s (Clark). There is an association of current guilds and individual freemen called the *Freemen of England & Wales* (see Clark and chart 21).

The technological and organizational changes in the later half of the 19th century moved industry towards a state where there was less demand for highly skilled artisans but a greater demand for a new type of adaptable semi-skilled worker. This was a threat to the power of the old trade guilds, which depended on their ability to limit the availability of necessary skills.

A new type of industrial group meeting the needs of semi-skilled and unskilled labourers, the trade union,

took root in the 19th century and evolved into a solid working class movement in the Edwardian era (Childs). At the other end of the scale some of the old trade guilds evolved into associations of highly skilled and relatively wealthy professionals. Each separate association and trade union has its unique history but some general comments can be made.

Professional Associations

The unique features of a profession is the qualifying organization (Prest), and its nature as a national occupational monopoly which continues to flourish in the 21st century. This is not to say that there was no-one performing these functions before the advent of an association—there were, and they cannot be relegated to non-professional status.

It was previously thought that professions before the industrial revolution were largely gentlemens' occupations developed either within the church or the craft guilds, and that a major shift to a meritocracy occurred during the industrial revolution. This view seems to have been based on data limited to the most successful practitioners in the higher social strata (Prest). It is now considered that the 14th-17th professions straddled several social strata within a broad middle class, and that an earlier and more gradual evolution occurred with scientific, social and economic advancement to include systematic training and examination of potential professionals. Prest provides an erudite historical approach to the development of the professions. A professional occupation was not

necessarily a full-time one, and would usually be undertaken until incapacity or death rather than until retirement. The records are dealt with under the sections on the individual professions.

Trade Unions

A trade union is an organized association of workmen of a trade formed for protection and promotion of common interests. The beginnings can be seen in the craft societies which developed in England in the mid- and late 18th century to bargain for wage increases against a background of steeply rising prices. Reference is made earlier in the course to the first such group, the Brushmakers' Society, formed in 1747. Unfortunately the late 18th century ones occurred at the same time as the French Revolution was making the aristocracy of England nervous about the preservation of the status quo.

Over-reaction secured the passage of the 1799 *Combination Act* which had a backlash effect of stimulating rather than preventing trade unionism. Craft societies, such as the spinning workers, wanted to prevent the use of blacklegs in a turn-out, control the supply of apprentices, and ensure a closed shop for the employment only of relatives and friends, and in 1810 demanded equal wages from all employers. In 1818 the first attempt to set up a general union of trades was made, and by 1824 the Combination Laws had been repealed.

Now that trade unions were legal there was a renewed impetus in the movement but it was intensely resisted

by employers. The Tolpuddle Martyrs were transported in 1834 for trying to get a decent wage for agricultural labourers. The struggles continued throughout the 19th and early 20th centuries; even by the 1880s very few workers were protected by a trade union.

Casual and unskilled workers, women and shop assistants had to wait until well into the 20th century. My own grandfather got his cards (was fired) many times for attempting to organize grocery trade assistants in the 1910s and 1920s.

The emergence of the Labour Party in 1923 was closely tied to the development of trade unionism. Good synopses of this vast subject area can be found in Browne, Fowler (1991), Hey, and Andrew Wood.

Records of trade unions, their paid and voluntary organizers and members, can be most helpful for tracing men and women who have left little other documentation. Early members records, from the 1830s, typically show name, age, occupation and name of employing company.

Towards the end of the 19th century some begin to show movement from place to place, either as transfers from one branch to another, or migration abroad. The trade society provided sick pay, pensions, funeral expenses and most of all it was the only place where a person could get out-of-work benefits. Naturally full records existed of contributions and benefits for the person and his dependants, to the delight of the family historian!

Many, but not all, national records have found a home at the Modern Records Centre, University of Warwick. Bennett & Storey have a list and introduction to what they have, and Storey presented selections of typical records. Others are still with the union, and many have been lost. Many union branch records are still held locally or have been deposited in local archives.

ON THE JOB

Early craftsmen worked out of their own homes with assistance from every member of the family and sold their produce themselves, either from their dwelling or at a local market. As production workplaces became established they were know as *manufactories*, and from the mid-19th century *mills* or *factories*. Before this time the term factory referred to the workplace of a company's *factors*, in other words a trading station or overseas branch.

Major Treatises such as Hammond & Hammond's *The Town Labourer* with the general introduction by Lovell comparing their work with that of later authors are fundamental to understanding the overall trends and forces. The British Industrial Revolution was the first one in the world and it entailed urbanization. In the one hundred years from 1750 to 1850 Britain changed from a largely rural to a predominantly urban society. At the beginning of the period less than 20% of the population lived in towns containing 5,000 or more people but a century later not only was the population larger, but over three fifths were town dwellers (Lovell's introduction to Hammond & Hammond). These urban people were very poorly housed, with serious overcrowding and defective water supplies, sanitation, drainage and ventilation. Tuberculosis was endemic and epidemics of cholera etc. were rife, contributing to a much lower life expectancy; Lovell quotes an 1837 report showing that the working Mancunian's life was only half as long as the rural inhabitant of Rutland. They also discuss the quality of life such as the change

from a family-based workforce to a factory-regimented one, and the new freedom from the close supervision of the church and the gentry of small communities.

Children and Women at Work

✓ Age

Children, particularly the eldest in a family, were expected to go out to work as soon as the law would allow, or before if they could get away with it, in order to supplement the family's income. The 1880 Education Act made school attendance up to the age of 10 compulsory, unless he or she had registered too few attendances, in which case he had to stay until age 13. In 1918 the school-leaving age was raised to 14, and in 1944 to 15 (Richardson).

✓ Hours of work

Various *Factory Acts* were passed to regulate the exploitation of child labour in regard to ages and number of hours per day allowed. These were widely circumvented as there was little enforcement and the restrictions were resented by employees who needed the children's contributions, and the long hours, to offset the meagre hourly pay.

In 1801/2 pauper apprentices were restricted to working 12 hours per day and had to receive elementary education. In 1819 no child under 9 was to be employed in a cotton mill, and others for no more than 12 hours a day. Althorpe's 1833 Act laid down hours of work for children in textile mills. Those aged 9-12 were to work a maximum of 9 hours a day and 48 a week, those

13-18 years up to 12 hours a day and 69 hours a week. Two hours schooling per day was to be given to all children.

The *Mines Act* of 1842 followed the report of a Royal Commission which showed children as young as 4 as well as women working in appalling conditions in the mines. The act prohibited the employment of girls, women or boys under 10 underground. The 1844 *Factory Act* laid down that in textile mills children were to spend half their days in school, and women were not to work more than 12 hours a day.

A further act in 1853 restricted the operational hours for children to 6am to 6pm with 1-1/2 hours for meals. In 1867 the *Factory Acts Extension* extended these provisions to other industries employing more than 50 people in one place. At the same time the *Workshop Regulation Act* introduced inspection of workshops, and prohibited employment of those under age 8. Children ages 8 to13 were to work only half a day.

In 1874 the minimum working age was raised to 9, and in 1875 to 10, with women allowed to work no more than 10 hours a day, and children under 15 only half a day. The minimum age was raised to 11 in 1891 by the *Factory and Workshop Act*, and in 1901 this was upped to 12. Further improvement came in 1937 when those under 16 were allowed only a 44-hour working week, and those 16-18 and women were allowed 48 hours.

Jerrold (1840-3) presented an essay on the life of the *factory child*, from the time she was deemed to be of the full age to qualify for work. Her age was assessed by a surgeon who examined the development of her teeth, and the puny seven-year-old was 'certified' to be nine and eager to contribute the much-needed extra family wages.

Opportunities for Women

The Acts of Parliament mentioned above came about in response to the awful 19th century conditions of work and the lack of sufficient wages for men to support a family.

Despite being given 'opportunities' for hard physical labour in addition to household duties and pregnancy all the money a woman earned legally belonged to her husband until 1870. It was also still legal for a man to beat his wife until 1879. The female mind was thought too feeble to manage mathematics, and higher education was forbidden for fear of drying up the mammary glands or affecting the womb.

When the typewriter was invented in 1867 it was considered far too complex for a woman to use. Oxford University first allowed a woman to get a degree in 1920 and Cambridge not until 1948.

In a thoughtful study on the sexual division of labour in London during the period 1820-1850, Sally Alexander has described the activities of working women.

What skilled work there was for women included the less-skilled parts of three categories:

- Exclusively female trades such as dressmaking, millinery and other needlecrafts.
- Women's work in the 'honourable' sectors of men's trades including shoemaking, cabinet making, tailoring, leather manufactories, bookbinding and hatting.
- Factory work in other trades such as rope and sailcloth, handloom weaving, and lucifer (match) making.

Each of these required some formal training, produced wages higher than average for women, and could provide secure employment. Unskilled and casual work included washing, mangling, folding, packing, and sewing typically for older women, and domestic service usually for younger ones. Street selling and various types of casual manufacturing jobs were other options.

Markets & Fairs

Markets developed from early times in most British towns, some of which later became industrial cities but others declined to the status of villages. Population increased during the 12th and 13th centuries but declined dramatically at the visitations of the Black Death in the 14th century, with the result that many towns were no longer viable trading centres. A subsequent cause of decline of smaller centres was the increasing mobility

of the population, especially when the railways developed in the mid-19th century. People were able to go to larger centres to benefit from wider selection and more competitive prices. A similar scenario plays out today as we see local shops disappear in favour of regional supermarkets and even global online shopping.

A town needed either a prescriptive right or a crown charter in order to hold a weekly market and an annual three-day fair, and to gain revenue from charging tolls of the traders.

Royal charters were first granted for markets in the late 12th century, but prescriptive rights date from an earlier period, often going back to Norman or even Anglo-Saxon times. Most fairs were founded between the Norman Conquest (1066) and the end of the Black Death (roughly 1500). County histories will give the dates when markets and fairs were established for particular towns, and trade directories note the day for the weekly market and the date of the annual fair, often on the saint's day for the local parish church. Contemporary guides to fairs across the country were available, the most popular being William Owen's 18th century *Book of Fairs*.

These gave all the pertinent dates and places for fairs and markets, with the range of goods and livestock offered for sale. Many larger towns had by then several fairs each year, specializing in different items each season. Certain towns became famous for particular markets, and some of these remain today, for example in London it was Billingsgate for fish, Smithfield for

meat and Covent Garden for vegetables, fruit and flowers. Some towns' fairs became very famous and still continue to this day, for example the Appleby, Westmorland horse fair. Many itinerant tradesmen and pedlars followed an annual route doing a circuit of fairs and markets.

Town-produced goods were on display and services offered, and all the local farmers would bring in their crops and animals on the hoof for the weekly market. Bartering as well as sales for money would have taken place, and in the early modern period the use of *trade tokens* was also widespread.

The latter were produced by over two thousand shopkeepers to fill a shortage of small coins until copper halfpennies and farthings were introduced in 1672. A few of the brass and copper tokens were valued at one penny (1d), but most were a halfpenny (1/2d) or a farthing (1/4d).

The issuer's name or initials, his trade, and business address were shown on the tokens which were accepted by other local merchants. Goldsmiths and silversmiths issued shillings in those metals during the metal shortages caused by the Napoleonic Wars (Prudence Bebb). A list of 17th century trade tokens was made by Boyne and many others are now known; those interested should consult the local archives.

Many early markets were held in churchyards, with the market place becoming an extension of it, until the early 14th century. Mediaeval new towns had planned market

places as a central feature. They were typically square, rectangular or triangular, with the *burgage plots* containing the homes and businesses of the wealthier merchant citizens (*burgesses*) arranged around them, each being long and narrow with its own small frontage onto the market place.

There was often a central market cross, the stump of which may be all that now remains in villages. Later there was usually an open-sided market hall offering shelter for traders of butter, eggs, cloth etc.

These were originally timber-framed structures completely open on ground level, but with rooms upstairs used for meetings, a school or office. It was here that many guilds and town councils met to conduct their business. During the 18th-19th centuries, in particular, large new market halls and corn exchanges were built fronting onto the old market squares. Over time the official business of the market place was transferred to the new corn exchanges.

Drawings or paintings of market places can be found in local histories, and the many recent books of photographic collections such as the Batsford series entitled *Victorian and Edwardian [county or town] from Old Photographs* feature plenty of market squares. On market days livestock occupied temporary pens in this space, and as the town grew the surrounding streets may have become specialized for different animals or products and often retain names such as Sheep Street and Butter Lane.

Some towns became famous for specialized fairs, particularly for horses, cattle and sheep, and these would attract sellers and buyers from far away. Dunster in Somerset still has its attractive, octagonal, oak and stone-built and tile-roofed Yarn Market where my Dashwood forebears sold their wool from shortly after it was built in 1589.

The stone market cross which sheltered stalls in Chichester, Sussex is still the city centre with North, South, East and West Streets radiating from it out into the countryside as main roads along which the local farmers, including many of my rural ancestors, made their weekly journeys.

Today market places contain shops, banks and hotels catering to the weekly market day throng but the open space is usually utilized as a car park on other days, or may be a pedestrian area and social space. All that remains of the market may be stalls with greengrocery, flowers, and inexpensive clothes and household goods.

The *hiring fairs* or *mop fairs* at the end of the farming year were held at Martinmas, signalling the end of the annual contracts between farmers and their servants. Some fairs continued to be held according to the Julian calendar long after 1752, so those celebrated on Old Martinmas were on 23rd November, and those on New Martinmas on 11th November. In 1677 an Act of Parliament endorsed the yearly bonds made at Martinmas so these fairs were also know as *statute* (or *statty*) fairs.

The fairs brought all the local farmers and hired servants together for an annual exchange of labour. Those with good situations were keen to renew, and other servants were warned of employers who offered inadequate wages or harsh conditions. Those seeking work carried with them a token of their calling, for example a shepherd fixed a tuft of wool in his hatband, a carter a piece of whipcord, and a groom a piece of sponge. Others carried a pail, broom or mop and so forth. Hiring fairs continued into the 20th century but there were few after the First World War.

Labouring families were highly mobile and the family historian needs to consider the location of nearby market towns and their catchment areas for the possibility of a change of job, and thus the site of a new family home, in November each year.

Typically a 15-mile radius would be a market town's catchment area, thus a man could easily move up to 30 miles each year, find a wife in the new area, and move the family on again some years later as he advanced in skill.

Contracts were sealed by means of *fastening pennies*, sums of money, in the late 19th century 1/-to 5/- depending on status of employee. Some of this may well have been spent at the associated funfair, often a highly spirited affair! Couples often met at markets and fairs, another reason for the genealogist to know which were the local market towns and seek an elusive marriage there or within its catchment area.

If the new servant stayed the whole year with his new master and received his full wages then he gained a new settlement in the parish of employment. Thus many people, especially the more mobile, younger, unmarried ones might have gained a series of settlements in different parishes, each one replacing the former. Children who had gained a settlement of their own by apprenticeship or service were no longer considered dependant upon their father but could look to their parish for assistance.

Today there is less need for the traditional markets and fairs, but many continue to be held as funfairs, (midways), on their traditional dates. For these contact the Fairground Society, the Fairground Association or the National Fairground Archive. Further information on markets and fairs can be found in Hey, Wymer (1949) and the Public Record Office leaflet D33, and illustrations of the features of market towns in Hogg, and Allen.

Richardson lists all the market towns by county and notes which also had fairs. Occasionally records of those hired at Statute Fairs can be found, such as the 95 lists that survive for the Holland, Lincolnshire area from 1792-1900, some of which give the name of the previous employer and his or her address (Camp 1994-2). Wilson (1980) is a good source on markets.

AGRICULTURE

The world of agriculture encompassed a huge variety of types of work and lifestyles, from:

- Primitive labour of man and oxen to highly mechanized methodology.
- Gentleman farmers and landowners to day labourers not paid a living wage.
- Breeding and raising of animals and birds to cultivation of staple and specialty crops.
- Knowledge of how to manage soil, water, forest and fen.
- Traditional methods and conservative views to new crops and scientific methods.
- Open fields and use of commons to enclosed fields.
- Local markets to worldwide distribution of agricultural products.
- Terrain that varied from mountainsides unsuitable for mechanical operation to newly reclaimed flat alluvial land.
- Size of holdings varying between a meagre 5 acres to over 2,000 acres.
- Farming as a sole occupation to those who held another trade as well.

There is therefore no typical farm, farmer or agricultural worker. Information about farming lifestyles needs to be sought not only in general texts but in ones specific to the county and to the type of agricultural enterprise in which your ancestors were engaged. These can be found through county archives and in bibliographies such as the long series being produced by Raymond, some of

which are in the Further Reading section here. Amongst the general references a good place to start is Eveleigh's *The Victorian Farmer* which has chapters on the farmer at work and at home, and a third of the volume devoted to the farmer's wife whose partnership was essential to the enterprise. The classic books by the Fussells discuss the English countryman and countrywoman's life from the Tudor to Victorian eras and are an excellent source. Armstrong's social and economic history of farmworkers, and Horn's work (1986) are to be recommended. Five Victorian views in one volume on the *Old Squire, Young Squire, Farmer's Daughter* and *English Peasant* (all by Howitt) and on the Farmer (by 'Alice') are most enlightening. Farming in the Lincolnshire fens has been described by Woods.

Almost 90% of farmers were tenants of the great landowners, but there were independent yeomen who owned their own home and sufficient land for a good lifestyle. There were also small farmers who made a very meagre living from tiny plots, and others who combined a small farm with another trade such as butcher, carter or weaver. Most farms were in the 100-300 acre range, but larger ones existed in the south and east, whilst pastoral farmers, for example dairy farmers in the west, had smaller holdings.

The farmer with 500 acres would be considered prosperous and at the lower end of the upper middle class, typically employing all the labour he needed, progressive and having the wherewithal to try new farming techniques. Those having fewer than 100 acres were those who worked in the fields alongside their

labourers and lacked resources to embark on improvements.

Every farmer was dependent upon the weather and market conditions. The price of corn (wheat) dominated the 19th century agricultural scene from the increased acreage brought under cultivation during the Napoleonic Wars, to the Corn Law of 1815 (modified in 1828) aimed at protecting the British farmer. Poor harvests in 1829-30 and consequent high prices for wheat, poor wages due to a surplus of workers, and the hated threshing machines which destroyed precious jobs in the difficult winter months, brought about the southern Swing Riots of 1830-32 (Chambers 1990, 1993, Hobsbawm & Rudé, Pateman, Vokes, Wotton) involving machine breaking and arson. The repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846 resulted in free trade and two subsequent decades of prosperity for farmers.

The last quarter of the 19th century was marked by severe recession for them after several bad harvests due to poor weather and the effects of growing imports of cheap grain from North America after the end of the U.S. Civil War. The railways opened up markets over the course of the century, but also took away the best labourers 'who were attracted by better prospects in the towns' (Eveleigh 1991).

The wealthier farmers can be found in county rural directories and as suppliers to institutions such as hospitals, workhouses, gaols, barracks etc. that may still have records. There was no early guild of farmers, nor was there a trade union or professional society, perhaps

because they were a fiercely independent bunch not given to co-operative endeavours. A guild of farmers was started in the second half of the 20th century when the necessity of co-operative measures were more adequately understood.

Agricultural Labourers

A large proportion of the population of earlier times were agricultural labourers, but these were not the dull clodhoppers lacking intelligence or aspiration of popular myth. Even the very small tenant farmers of under 10 acres might call themselves thus. Countrymen had to be extremely knowledgeable about many aspects of agricultural practice in the area in which they lived. Not necessarily masters of every trade but certainly capable of tackling a wide variety of tasks as well as reading the weather, improvising solutions to problems, and using natural resources to feed their families.

The farm labourer had considerable skill if his tasks included ploughing, harrowing, rolling, sowing seed, tending and weeding a variety of crops, harvesting with scythe, sickle and spade, and laying up and threshing during the winter. The animals had to be herded and milked, and the shepherds needed skilled help at lambing and shearing times. There was cutting, drying and stacking hay, as well as trimming and laying hedges or building drystone walls, fencing and making gates, making or mending roofs of thatch, tile or slate, and pointing brickwork. Ditches, culverts, drains, ponds, farm roads and tracks all had to be made and maintained. In autumn stubborn invasive weeds needed

to be skillfully eradicated by fire, and every item needed in his home had to be constructed on days when the weather was too poor to work outside. Not every agricultural labourer possessed, or needed, all of these skills but the seasonal nature of most work demanded that he be versatile and, naturally, the more capable he was the better wages he could command.

Some *ag labs* moved around at different seasons, with or without their families, perhaps for fruit picking in summer in Worcestershire, hop-picking in the autumn in Kent and threshing in winter in Sussex. Others stayed for generations in the same parish and they were most likely to be those that were firmly attached to the land, especially copyhold tenants (Jolliffe).

The Hammonds have written a worthwhile treatise on the village labourer. Talbot-Ashley has an excellent article on conditions for the ag. lab, but the subsequent comments by Crew on wages, and Jolliffe on movements and other topics should also be noted. Talbot-Ashley notes that the whole family's efforts were required to gain even a subsistence living. The labourer's wife was traditionally responsible for their own poultry, brewing and dairy produce and she would accept paid work of this kind outside her considerable domestic duties whenever she could. This might also include picking stones, weeding vegetables, fruit picking or binding sheaves and stooking at harvest. The children would scare birds, pick stones, plait straw, and weed fields. The older girls were expected to assist their mother in handicrafts, cooking, cleaning, raising chickens and other household chores, whilst boys from

about the age of seven would work beside their father in the fields. Schooling, except for an hour of Sunday School, was almost unheard of for labourers until at least 1870, as even if a charity school existed they could not be spared to attend it.

Men working on the farm traditionally wore linen *smocks*, a dress-like garment with plenty of fullness allowing movement. They were made in a number of colours, and often had elaborate embroidery on the sleeves and neck openings (Arnold 1970, Filbee, Hall). The smock was an outer garment worn over a shirt (which doubled as a night shirt), waistcoat and breeches fastened with a button, buckle or tape beneath the knee. Stockings, boots, sometimes gaitors and a hat completed the ensemble. Until about 1840 long trousers were only worn by sailors and very poor shepherds.

The fame of your ag lab ancestor may have consisted solely of entries in the parish registers, but you can seek out some of the many descriptions of the kinds of agriculture practiced in his geographical area, including those included in fiction. Copyhold tenants will feature in the manorial rolls that can produce a treasure trove of information on their relationships. Make good use of maps, parish chest records and rate books, as well as newspaper reports of such items as ploughing matches and steam machine accidents and even local folk songs. It does not surprise us that there are few first hand accounts of labouring life, but Goddard (2001) tells us about Stephen Duck, an accomplished poet who started life as a Wiltshire agricultural labourer and wrote from his heart. Works of fiction should not be ignored, for

there are many which were well-researched or composed from raw experience. Thomas Hardy's works come to mind, as does Gray's *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*, so strongly evocative of the labourer's lot in life. Wade (1988), Dudley, and Camp (2000) give further sources for agricultural labourers.

Animal Husbandry

There are a number of Shire books on *old breeds of farm animals and birds*, for example poultry and domestic ducks and geese (Hams), raising doves (Hansell), British cattle and pigs (Porter), working oxen (Watts), old British livestock (Vince), rare breeds (Alderson), British sheep (Henson), harness horses (Hart) and horse brasses (Vince), old farm dogs and old working dogs (Hancock).

A related occupation is that of the *drover* who brought animals to market on the hoof typically from the Celtic far reaches of the British Isles to south-eastern England for fattening on the lusher pastures and a ready market. The appearance of typically Welsh, Scottish or northern names in southern or eastern England, particularly along the major routes, may indicate the presence of a drover. Thus in Dunstable, Bedfordshire we see Elizabeth daughter of Ellis ap Rice in 1571, Philip ap Powell, and Elizabeth wife of Thomas ap Ryce in 1574.

Dairying was always the farmwife's domain; Filbee suggests that this was because only they had the high standard of cleanliness, patience and attention to detail necessary for making butter, cheese etc. She describes

these processes and illustrates the equipment. Ingram has more details about dairying equipment. Farmer's wives depended on the extra source of income resulting from the sale of dairy products to purchase items such as materials, cotton, needles and pins needed for household sewing— literally their pin money.

Gamekeeping & Poaching

The gamekeeper was one of the elite of the village hierarchy, with a status below that of the squire and rector, but above the doctor and schoolmaster (Jones 1996). Maurin's 1995 article is valuable and the story of Britain's greatest gamekeeping family over two centuries, the Grass's, has been recounted by Jones, who has recently published a history of this occupation.

From 1710 until the mid-20th century all gamekeepers were supposed to be registered with the Clerk of the Peace, and thus noted in the Quarter Sessions records and reported in local newspapers, as are poaching trials which give evidence presented by keepers. The Quarter Sessions records called *gamekeepers deputations* give the name of the lord of the manor and on what date he deputed the killing of his game to the named keeper. Many are filmed and chart 22 shows an example with my ancestor James Jupp.

CHART 22:
Deputations of Gamekeepers from Sussex Quarter Sessions 1837-38

18 Sep 1837	Sir Charles Merrick BURRELL, Baronet of Knapp Castle in the parish of Shipley, Sussex, for the Manor of Clothalls, Sussex, deputed John BRISTOW of Swallows Farm in the Parish of West Grinstead, Sussex.
17 Oct 1837	William John CAMPION Esq. Lord of the manors of Hurstpierpoint, Wickham and Clayton and proprietor of Keymer Park Farm, Keymer, Sussex deputes James JUPP of Hurstpierpoint, Sussex.
10 Feb 1838	The Right Honorable Henry THOMAS, Earl of Chichester, Lord of the respective manors of Stanmer and Falmer, Sussex deputes Thomas DIGGENS of Stanmer, Sussex, servant.

Gamekeepers can also be found in private estate records, landowners' biographies and wills, estate histories and local directories. *The Gamekeeper* magazine from 1897 included biographies, and Clarke runs an index of gamekeepers.

A *warrener* was a special gamekeeper employed from the 12th century to develop *warrens* (or *conigers*) for raising *coneys* (later called *rabbits*) for the table. He had to guard against foxes, weasels and stoats as well as poachers who could not afford other meats for their families. Goddard (1994-1) has presented a good outline of their work. Rabbit killers carried out another job, being engaged to kill off surplus wild rabbits that had become a nuisance; they was usually not paid but kept part of the kill which were sold for meat and fur.

Ingram writes on and illustrates trapping and poaching history and techniques for deer; rabbits and hares; pheasants and partridges; songbirds; eels, pike, trout and salmon; and vermin (including poachers!) The trials of poachers, if caught, can be found in court registers and reported in the local newspapers.

Crop Husbandry

• Fruit Growing

Commercial-scale fruit growing was initiated in Britain in the 16th century and apples and cherries from Kent, known as the *Garden of England*, were of excellent quality by the time of Elizabeth I when there was huge enthusiasm for planting fruit trees (Hey). Soft fruits provided seasonal picking work for women, many of whom would travel long distances for the summer season. The apprenticeships of the growers and dealers in the Fruiterers Company 1750-1815 have been indexed by Webb (1997-2).

• Hops & Hopping

In the original English parlance the brewing of beer requires hops, whereas ale does not. [Outside Britain the terms are used differently: British beers are referred to as ale, whilst lager is called beer.] The hop growing counties are Kent, with over half the production, and Herefordshire and Worcestershire. Harvesting used to be very labour intensive and thousands of London east-enders used to take an annual August respite from the smog *goin' 'oppin'*. Good references for growing hops and hop picking are Filmer's book, and articles by Wade, Hilton and Bailey (1982).

• Milling

The grinding of grains for corn (wheat) flour, oatmeal and animal foodstuffs, and rye flour has been practiced in England using water power for over 1,000 years. Windmills have been used since about 1180. Other foodstuffs such as peas were regularly milled, and oil was crushed from linseed and rapeseed (canola). Non-foodstuffs include tobacco ground to make snuff (Bailey 1982, Bourne) and chalk for whitening in paint, putty and cosmetics (Hey).

The post, smock and tower mill types are discussed by Hey, Manners and Bailey. Watts has two little books on milling and mills and an index of over 30,000 millers is run by Yoward.

• Straw

Straw has a multitude of uses apart the immediately obvious one of thatching houses, haystacks, churches, and walls. It was estimated that there were still 50,000 thatched houses in England in 1980 (Staniforth). Other items crafted of straw are bee-skeps, baskets, straw plait for hats (Bailey 1982), straw rope, archery targets, straw mats, straw envelopes for bottles and other packing materials, horse collars, and decorative items such as pictures.

Staniforth is a well-illustrated introduction to the growing, harvesting and many uses of straw. Corn dolly making from straw is an old harvest custom described by Arnold (1968, 1970), Dixon, and Manners.

Land & Machinery

Land reclamation for agriculture in the 2,000 square miles of fens in the eastern counties of Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridgeshire, Bedfordshire and Lincolnshire was started by the Dutch engineer Vermuyden in the 17th century (Bailey 1982). Four Shire books are useful adjuncts regarding the use of machinery on farms: Smith on *horse-drawn farm machinery*, Bonnett on *farming with steam*, Cawood on *vintage tractors*, and Watts on *water & wind power*.

Gardeners & Nurserymen

The gardener is employed to cultivate and manage vegetables, flowers, ornamental and fruit trees and other plants. Hurley (1991-1) explains the functions of private flower, fruit and kitchen gardens, and of market gardens around cities supplying the needs for garden vegetables as well as flowers and soft fruit.Background information on gardening topics can be found in Symes (garden history), Sanecki (old garden tools), Campbell (walled kitchen gardens), Gibson (English Rose Gardens), Conway (public parks), Batey (Regency gardens), and Anthony (period gardens). Shire books on influential English gardeners include Sanecki on *Humphrey Repton*, Massingham on *Gertrude Jekyll* and Clifford on *Capability Brown*. The apprenticeships for the Gardeners' Company 1764-1850 have been indexed by Webb (1997-2). The London Metropolitan Archives information leaflet 11 summarizes the surprising variety of their records relating gardening and horticulture in the Greater London area.

BUILDING

Buildings

Men have been building shelters and defensive structures such as earthworks in Britain since prehistoric times but no archaeological evidence of their homes survives until after the Norman Conquest (1066). The record is excellent from the time most of us can trace our ancestors, the 16th century, but as most houses were built of wood and plant/mud combinations it is a wonder that they have survived. Churches and the homes of the wealthy were built of more enduring stone, but there is at least one wooden Anglo-Saxon church still in use, and plenty of remnants.

The quality of stone used in building the parish church often reflects the prosperity (or lack of it) of that parish during the period of building, extension or renovation. Those parishes not situated close to good stone outcrops were at an obvious disadvantage. Hey has presented a masterly survey of the best literature on the history of British buildings.

The early modern period (1570-1640) was a time of increasing prosperity largely due to the English wool trade and this wealth was used for the *Great Rebuilding* of homes.

During this period, stretching from the middle of Elizabeth's reign until the start of the Civil War disturbance, the increasing middle class comprised of

yeomen, husbandmen and craftsmen used local stone where available and otherwise brick to replace the timber building materials of their homes. Since the geological stratigraphy of Britain, especially England & Wales, is so varied, ranging from the earliest Pre-Cambrian rocks in the west to the current alluvial deposits in the east, vernacular architecture presents a very diverse and appealing variety across the country. Brick earth fields are widespread and since the coming of the railways (1830s onwards) brick has been more economical and the use of stone has declined. Stone is now very costly and by the late 20th century was used mainly as a veneer.

Moving the stone from the quarry to the building site was problematic and costly, but greatly facilitated by using navigable rivers and coastal waters (Hey), as well as the extensive canal system begun during this period. Investigation of the stone used for the different periods of building of the church, and for the tombstones, can indicate the waterways network in operation at the time.

Background reading on types of English homes can be found in Harris (timber-framed buildings), Powell (cottage architecture), Dixon (East Anglian Cottages), Iredale & Barrett (Discovering Your Old House), and Stevenson (the 1930s home).

Other buildings are featured in Watts (water- and wind-powered mills), Harvey (old farm buildings), Hansell (dovecotes), Powell (stables), Buxbaum (ice-houses), Pearson (piers and other seaside architecture), and Eyles (old cinemas).

Materials

The ancient building material called cob, made of mud and pebbles with straw or horse hair for binding, is typical of the farmhouses and outbuildings of the west country counties of Dorset, Devon and Cornwall. The building technique, described and illustrated by Staniforth, demands a good foundation and an overhanging thatched roof to keep the rain out. The thick walls keep the buildings warm in winter and cool in summer and many surviving examples are over 300 years old.

Lime was much used in mortar, plaster and whitewash, and the building of limekilns has been described by Williams (1989). Pla(i)sterers rendered walls with a covering of plaster from early times, but ornamental plasterwork on walls and ceilings became fashionable from the 16th century. A special form of decorative plasterwork on outside walls, called parget(t)ing, was common in Essex and Suffolk (Buxbaum). Webb (2000-5) has indexed the apprenticeships of the Plaisterers' Company 1597-1662 and 1698-1800.

Building Trades

Most of the building trades have been regulated by craftsmens' guilds in the larger towns since mediaeval times. The exception were the masons who were often itinerant workers controlled through a system of lodges. Hey indicates that the typical unit consisted of a master craftsman employing one or two men and a boy, and this continued well into the 20th century. Large construction firms were rare before the 1960s, a modern example being discussed by Hudson (1980-1). The

trade was not subject to much technological change before the 20th century. The master builder developed a network of other skilled craftsmen such as plasterers, plumbers and glaziers whom he employed as needed during the course of a project. Descriptions and records of some of the trades are included here.

• Bricklayers

Bricklayers have been in demand since the 16th century in areas having little natural stone, particularly the south east and eastern parts of England. Hurley (1991-1) has a description of the work, and Webb (1996-2) has indexed the apprenticeships of the Tylers' and Bricklayers' Company 1612-1644 and 1668-1800.

• Glaziers

Mediaeval *glaziers* did most of their work installing windows in major secular and ecclesiastical buildings since glass was too expensive for domestic buildings. There was a slow increase but it was not until the 19th century that glass was mass-produced cheaply enough for the glazier's trade to really expand. Webb (1997-3) has indexed the apprenticeships for the Glaziers Company 1694-1800.

• Masons

Stonemasons undertook a variety of work from quarrying and dressing stone to laying it with mortar (masonry) and also the polishing and lettering of monuments. The term *stone cutter* referred to anyone who hewed or cut stone, and these could be divided into *rough masons* who used a pick to shape quarried stone into more or less cubical blocks but without angles or

finely dressed faces, and *stone dressers* who shaped the blocks precisely. A *free mason* was originally a man who worked the best quality freestone (fine-grained easily sawn sandstone or limestone), but the term also refers to members of the friendly society. Hislop has a fine book on mediaeval masons, and Webb (1999-4) has indexed the apprenticeships of the Masons' Company 1663-1805.

• Paviours

The floors of mediaeval England were simply earth bound with bullock's blood, hard-packed with use and strewn with rushes and sweet herbs to provide warmth and improve the smell. Later the *paviour* was called upon to provide more substantial flooring, although most of his work was on roadways. Larger buildings were the first to have flagstones laid, and other materials used for paving included bricks, quarry and baked clay tiles and cement, with marble and mosaic work favoured for some pretentious buildings. Hurley (1991-2) describes the paviour's work and the apprenticeships of the Paviours' Company from 1568-1800 have been indexed by Webb (1998-9).

• Plumbers

Plumbers originally worked only with lead and installed water cisterns, roofs, pipes, and gutters for all kinds of buildings. Their company was already well-established by 1365. Hurley (1991-1) describes the work and Webb (2000-4) has indexed the nearly 2,000 Plumbers' Company apprenticeships 1571-1800.

• Thatchers

Early *roofing* material was called *thaec* in Anglo-Saxon and the commonest were vegetable matter - straw, reed, heather, bracken (ferns), and turf (even seaweed was used on the island of Læsø in Denmark!) Thatch was the most widespread roofing material in Britain until the 17th century and even some larger buildings like churches were thatched. Even the compulsory coat of whitewash did not eliminate the risk of fire, however, and ordinances were enacted during the 17th and 18th centuries in various cities and towns prohibiting new roofs of thatch. So today the remaining thatch is located almost always in rural areas, and in the late 20th century made a comeback as the more affluent moved out into the countryside and could afford to re-roof in thatch. The work of the thatcher has been described by Fearn, Maurin (1993), Dixon, Arnold (1968, 1970), Bailey 1982, Manners, and Staniforth.

• Tylers

Tiles, wooden shingles and slates became the preferred roofing material in towns and also in parts of the countryside from the 17th century. At the same time it became popular to hang walls with tiles in south eastern England, followed by the use of glazed brick tiles (known as mathematical tiles) during the late Georgian period (early 1800s). The apprenticeships for the Tylers' and Bricklayers' Company from 1612-1644 and 1668-1800 have been indexed by Webb (1996-2).

Other Building Projects

▪ Hedges & Walls

Hedges have been a part of the English landscape since at least Anglo-Saxon times and many ancient ones, recognized by their diversity of species, still exist. They were used not only to fence in livestock and as windbreaks, but as sources of wood, and habitat for wildlife (Hey). Most English hedges date from the period of parliamentary enclosure 1750-1850 (Manners, Hey). The considerable skills of the *hedger*, *plasher* or *pleacher* (one who prunes and intertwines branches to form stock-proof hedges) are outlined by Dixon, Arnold (1968, 1970), and Manners.

In upland and especially northern areas of England, where climatic conditions did not permit the growth of good dense hedges, *dry-stone walls* constructed without the use of mortar were preferred. They had been used in villages for many centuries, but most such field walls resulted from the 18th and 19th century parliamentary enclosure of commons and wastes. The craft of dry-stone walling is explained in Garner, Arnold (1968,1970), and Manners.

Ditches for drainage often run parallel to hedges and walls, and these had to be maintained regularly along with the hedges and walls.

▪ Canals, Bridges & Ponds

The *canal era* was initiated by Francis Egerton, 3rd Duke of Bridgewater who commissioned engineer James Brindley to construct a 67 km-long canal to carry coal from his mines at Worsley to Manchester, Lancashire. Bode has written a well-illustrated biography of James Brindley (1716-1772) and his work. Further information on canals can be found in Bailey (1982), Hey, Richardson, Pratt, Ware, and in the Shire books on canal architecture and canals in Britain by Peter Smith.

England still has many *mediaeval bridges* that were built by local authorities such as boroughs or manors, by private individuals or by monasteries. They normally had an attached chapel, on the bank or the bridge itself, for the saying of a prayer for a safe journey and payment of a toll for repairs called *pontage*. Mediaeval bridges had pointed arches and were rarely more than 12-15 feet wide, hence most have been widened to accommodate increased traffic. Sometimes the original contracts or records of payments to the masons survive. Major bridges designated as *county bridges* became the responsibility of the Justices of the Peace during the 16th and 17th centuries and their records can be found in the Quarter Sessions. The smaller *packhorse bridges* needing repairs were also mentioned when local *overseers of highways* were delinquent in their duties. Records showing replacement of older wooden packhorse bridges with stone structures about 1650-1750 often survive with names of the masons. Hey has a good section on older bridges.

The next phase in the late 18th and 19th centuries involved major engineering feats, and the Scottish engineer Thomas Telford (1757-1834) was the leading engineer (Pearce). He became famous for the construction of roads and harbours, and in particular several large bridges including the Menai Bridge linking Wales and Anglesey. Construction of ponds, whether so-called *dew ponds* (filled by rain not dew) on the chalk downs for watering sheep, or *ornamental ponds* in gardens, was carried out as described by Manners.

▪ Roads

There were Roman *streets*, Anglo-Saxon *ways* and *lanes*, and Scandinavian gates but the word road was rarely used before the late 17th century. During the next century it became more widespread through the building of *military roads* in Scotland and *turnpike roads* throughout Britain. The biggest improvement in technique was by Scottish engineer John Loudon McAdam (1736-1836) who invented the process of building roads with successive layers of decreasingly sized broken stone of nearly uniform size, each compacted before the next layer is laid. Tar is added to the top layers to form the smooth material we now know as *tarmac*. Chaloner has a chapter on McAdam's contributions to road making.

COMMERCIAL SERVICE

Auctioning

The role of the auctioneer has been hilariously depicted by Brownrigg (1840-2).

Cleaning Services

• Charring & Laundering

Two staple occupations which provided income for married and widowed women were charring (house or office cleaning), and washing and ironing other people's dirty linen. It is probable that the participation of women in the paid work force has been much under-reported, for example many, if not most, married women do not have occupations stated on the censuses. Malcolmson has written a most intriguing book on the social history of English laundresses during the period 1850-1930 and describes the methods used before the use of soaps, as well as the commercial processes. Laundering could have been a life work, but was often resorted to as a temporary source of income in times of adversity. Mechanization came late to the laundry trade, so most of the work was hard manual labour, with census entries such as *washerwoman*, or keeps a mangle usually indicating a home-based job or sometimes working for a large household. Small unmechanized workshops, known as *hand laundries*, still constituted almost three-quarters of the commercial establishments in 1901.

Mechanized laundries first started in the 1860s and rapid development of large *steam laundries* and *factory laundries* developed only after 1890, and first in the cities with large public and private institutions or large numbers of temporary residents such as spa, seaside and university towns.

• Chimney Sweeping

The development of chimneys to facilitate the escape of smoke from fireplaces brought with it the need to regularly clean them of accumulated soot. This job was relegated to the lowest servants, along with the cleaning of the *garderobe* (toilet). The problem was exacerbated upon the introduction of coal, usually termed sea-coal as it came by sea from Newcastle, and the commercial sweep had plenty of work. The trade was notorious for taking workhouse foundlings and orphans, the smaller the better, as apprentices where they were subjected to horrific conditions climbing up inside chimneys to scrape off the soot and tar. The sweep machine, a round brush on a jointed, elongated, flexible handle was invented in the very early 19th century, but was not adopted widely until much later, as employment of *sweeping lads* (and some *lassies*) was far cheaper. From 1773 reformers, including Jonas Hanway, Charles Dickens' (in *Oliver Twist*), and Charles Kingsley (in *The Water Babies*) had tried to stop the abuse of these poor children but it was not until 1875 that Lord Shaftesbury's Act eliminating the use of sweeping boys was passed (Trevelyan). Goddard (1991) has presented a brief social history of home heating and an interesting discussion of the life of sweeps and sweeping boys.

- **Crossing Sweeping**

In the days of horse traffic in the cities but inadequate public cleansing the person who acquired a broom and swept a path for ladies and gentlemen to cross the street without soiling their clothes and shoes could make a few pennies. Mayhew (1861) allocates 30 pages to the old and young, male and female crossing sweepers and their activities.

- **Lace cleaning & mending**

Amongst the many specialized services, this one catered to fashionable 19th century ladies who wore a phenomenal amount of expensive lace and passed it down as heirlooms. An article on home and commercial cleaning methods was published by Given (1991).

General Labourers

A subject about which very little has been written, especially for the family historian. Mayhew (1861) deals with several types of unskilled labourers in the London docks such as *coal heavers, ballast getters* and *lumpers*.

Hairdressing & Wigmaking

The old-fashioned hairdresser not only cut and styled ladies' and gentlemen's hair but also made wigs and braids, and usually did shaving as well. *Perukes*, also known as *periwigs* (later shortened to *wigs*), were worn by the upper classes but not by working people as they were both expensive and cumbersome. Elizabeth I wore a wig but this adornment did not become fashionable in England until the mid-17th century and started to go into

a demise after the French Revolution (1789) and upon the introduction of the *hair powder tax* in 1795. Hair powder, used to whiten women's hair or the white men's and women's wigs first introduced in 1710, was made from wheat and the scarcity of that commodity in 1799 further reduced the popularity of the wig.

The best-paid part of the trade was *wigmaking*, and full wigs, shorter styles such as tie-wigs, are still worn by members of the legal profession. Given runs an index of perukemakers and has written about the trade (1997).

Keeping Lodgers

A classic method of supplementing family income was to take in lodgers and the census divides them into boarders who ate with the family, and lodgers who catered for themselves. In the 19th century the term lodgings came to mean rooms rented by migrant or unmarried workers in industrial towns (Hey). Mayhew (1861) has an excellent description of the *common lodging house*, a nightly dormitory for the very poor.

Painters & Paperers

House painters and decorators often combined these occupations with those of oil and colour merchant, plumber and glazier. There was a Painter Stainers company in London (Englefield, Arnold & Ingram), which attracted apprentices from the provinces (Surry).

Porters

Thousands of porters were employed at the great trading centres, markets, docks, and railway stations. There were several different organizations regulating porters of various kinds in London, and these men would have been freemen of the city. *Alien Porters* were porters of aliens' goods employed by the *city packer* responsible for collecting various duties on aliens' imports. *Fellowship Porters* were also known as the *Billingsgate Porters* or the *Coal, Corn* and *Salt Porters* and they had a monopoly in the porterage of measurable goods from 1605-1894 when they were wound up. There were usually only 12 *Tackle House Porters* and they were actually the porterage contractors of the 12 Great Livery Companies. They employed *Street or Ticket Porters* to carry goods at the waterside tacklehouses. Membership lists exist for 1604, and 1673-1869. *Wine Porters* belonged to the Vintners Company. Aldous recommends Stern's work on The Porters of London. Porters' licences exist for many markets for periods in the 19th-20th centuries

Vermin Control

The *rat catcher* was formerly a very necessary service man who would be called upon to rid warehouses, barns or homes of infestations. However there was also a good market for live rats for the blood sport against dogs or ferrets, and the delicacy of rat pie graced many a poor table (Cuffley). A ratcatcher earned more than a labourer and Mayhew (1861) tells us about some experiences with this trade in London. Other vermin, for example moles, were valuable for their skins.

Telecommunications

Chaloner(1963) has summarized the first 130 years of telecommunications history and anyone with telegraphists, telephone engineers, telephonists and those in the radio and television industry would find this useful background reading. There are some Shire books on old gramophones and other talking machines (Bergonzi), old radio sets (Hill), old telephones and old television (Emmerson). British Telecom has extensive archives with indexes that can be used by the public.

Undertaking

The elaborate rituals of the Victorian funeral are splendidly depicted by May (1996-2), and Jerrold (1840-4).

DOMESTIC SERVICE

Economic Contribution of Women

The changing role of women as part of the household economic unit has been considered by Charles & Duffin as part of the Oxford Women's Series, and in a succinct article by Wilson (1988). Ordinary women were excluded from public life up to the 17th century but they played an important economic role in the household. They produced much of the food and clothing the family needed, and were frequently in charge of the retail side of their husband's business.

Many also undertook paid work done in their homes such as spinning (wool and woollen cloth constituted 80-90% of Britain's exports), brewing, laundering, retailing, growing and preparation of food, and taking in lodgers. In rural areas women were agricultural labourers with many skills, and in cloth making districts often did out-work for clothiers. Their labours were very poorly paid compared with men's wages, and were considered an adjunct to the man's economic contribution to the family, the type and amount being determined by the husband's situation.

Since there was a surplus of women many supported themselves and their choice of occupation could vary from their married sisters; service in larger homes was a frequent necessity in order to provide both room and board.

During the period 1650 to 1850 the role of women changed as many traditional female occupations disappeared and those needing work had to find it outside the home. Large scale farming edged out small independent farmers and developments in mechanized industry forced craftsmen out of business.

Men were forced to take waged jobs working for others instead of for themselves and this frequently took them to the towns. Women who had assisted their husbands in their independent farms and businesses could no longer do so, and thus needed paid work. Concomitantly the growth of factories removed many of the household production out-worker tasks to the factories.

Further changes came about during the second half of the 19th century and into the 20th. The effects of the Married Women's Property Acts of 1870 and 1882, and the burgeoning government bureaucracy opened up opportunities for women. The Compulsory Education Acts of 1870 and 1880 meant that vast numbers of teachers were now required, and the nursing profession had become respectable through the efforts of Florence Nightingale.

These three avenues were eagerly adopted and have the added benefit of leaving relatively good records. Compulsory Education also meant that the next generation of women were better qualified for clerical jobs and to assume more responsible positions.

Homemakers

Batchelor has provided a guide for researching ordinary women's lives emphasizing these important issues:

- Since women were traditionally defined in relation to males, then use the latter as your starting point.
- Women often played an important role in their local church and charities, and female relatives may have been educated in religious institutions or been nuns there.
- Contemporary books and magazines on household management as well as old catalogues tell much about grandmother's world.
- Private writings such as diaries, letters and wills need to be searched for, not only for ancestors but for their friends, neighbours and employers.
- Local history collections can provide much information on women because they have often stayed in one place over long periods and were active in the community.
- Fiction written about women and by women may provide a way to find out about contemporary conditions, but has to be interpreted with care.
- Unusual or less-used sources need to be explored thoroughly; oral history, local newspapers, artefacts and crafts.

Since the 1960s a large number of books have been written about women's lives and these can be found in local libraries. Recent illustrated sources for the 20th century include one on the 1930s home by Stevenson, and another on life on the home front in WWII by De La Bédoyère.

Royal Warrant Holders & Royal Household Servants

Royal Household servants fell into two departments:

- ✓ The *Lord Chamberlain* was responsible for the above-stairs staff comprising Chambers, Wardrobes, Office of Robes, Ceremonies, Revels, Musicians, Chapels, Housekeepers, Messengers, Yeoman of the Guard, Watermen, Physicians, artists, craftsmen and sundry others ranging from the Poet Laureate to the Keeper of Lions at the Tower.

- ✓ The *Lord Steward*, and after 1854 the *Master of the Royal Household*, had responsibility for the below-stairs staff comprising all the Kitchen offices, Counting House, Wood and Coal Yards, porters, waiters and sundry others from the Keeper & Repairer of Buckets to the Cistern Cleaner.

The Royal Archives has wonderful records with a comprehensive card index to persons employed by both the Lord Chamberlain and the Lord Steward from 1660. The archivist is very helpful as I found out when researching Queen Victoria's housekeeper Mrs Grundy, who turned out not to be the prototype of the saying *"Whatever would Mrs. Grundy say?"* The records of the Master of the Royal Household are not public ones. Useful sources are the Public Record Office leaflets D26 and D27, Bevan, Camp (1994-1) and the two volumes by Sainty & Bucholz.

Since 1830 the Lord Chamberlain has granted warrants allowing tradesmen supplying the Royal Household to display the Royal Coat of Arms with the phrase *By appointment to [member of royal family].* There are systematic records of these and also of suppliers of goods from 1199 at the PRO and their leaflets D27, D98 and D2 should be consulted for details.

Servants

The census of 1851 showed the presence of over a million domestic servants in Britain, which made the occupation the second most common after agricultural labour. The number rose to 1-1/2 million by 1891 partly as a result of population growth and partly because of the growth of the middle classes who aspired to at least one maid-of-all-work. There have been numerous books written about their work and life and two successful television series Upstairs Downstairs (1971-1977) concerning a family and The Duchess of Duke Street (1979-1980) depicting an hotel's staff arrived at the right time to fuel the interest of family historians.

In a large establishment the hierarchy of servants *below stairs* was just as rigid as that for the family *upstairs*. No matter the number, they were divided into the *upper ten* and the *lower five*. The upper ten were headed by the *house steward*, who even had his own servant, the *steward's room man*, and was responsible for other male staff. Second to the steward was the *groom of the chambers*, who supervised the *under-butle*r and the *footmen*. The *butler, valet,* and *cook* completed this upper group of indoor male servants. The senior female

was the *housekeeper*, and the only other females ranking in the upper ten were the *ladies' maids* and *governesses*.

The lower five were more numerous and comprised the other indoor staff - the *head footman* (also known as the *under-butler*), *footmen, under footmen, pages* and *the bootboy*. The *young ladies' maid, upper and lower housemaids, still-room maid, kitchen maid, upper and lower laundry maids* down to the lowly *scullery maid* made up the remainder of the lower five. There was frequently a host of outdoor staff such as *gardeners* and various *under-gardeners*, *coachmen, grooms* and *postilions*, the *gamekeeper* and his assistants, *carpenters* and sundry others. All of these servants wore distinctive clothes befitting their positions, and the footmen and coachmen on larger estates would be splendidly outfitted in livery.

The duties and lifestyle of the various servants have been described by Ledwith, Horn (1975), May (1998), Wilson (1988, 1991) and Dawes, whilst Waterson relates the story of the staff and restoration of Erddig, a modest estate in Wales. The experiences of staff at the family's annual seaside outing have been given by Weeds. Families employed by the great landowners were often moved around the country to their different estates, thus *estate records* can not only give useful employment and salary details but may indicate where the servant family came from or disappeared to.

FISHING & WHALING

Mariners in the Royal Navy and mercantile service as well as coastguards and lifeboatmen are considered in the course *English: Occupations - The Services*. Those engaged in harvesting food and other useful materials from the sea are considered here.

Fishing

The English fishing industry was already well established when William I arrived in 1066, boats going as far as the Arctic to harvest enough fish to satisfy the demand for fish on Wednesdays and Fridays, and during Lent and other Christian festivals. The Catholics subsequently reduced the fast to only Fridays, and at the Reformation Protestants opposed the weekly fish day as smacking of popery, with disastrous results for the fishing industry. To compensate, Elizabeth I declared many specific *fish days* to assist the fishermen.

Manors had their own fish ponds, and monasteries managed complex breeding tanks (Hey). The town freemen rolls mention freshwater fishermen who caught eels, bream, pike and pickerel in rivers and lakes and marine fish such as herring, haddock, cod and skate. Many small coastal places depended largely on fishing, perhaps with smuggling as a sideline especially in the south. In the 15th-16th centuries some fishermen were travelling as far as Iceland in search of herring, and later to Newfoundland for cod.

The great development of deep-sea fishing took place during the 18th and 19th centuries with large fishing ports arising in the north east and Scotland (Hey).

The North Sea was particularly busy with cod, plaice and sole being the main catches from ports like Hull (with England's largest trawler fleet), Grimsby (which had the world's biggest fish market), Whitby and North Shields and a host of smaller ones (Bailey 1982). The main methods were drifting and trawling. Drifters work closely together dragging vertical nets to catch surface fish such as herring and mackerel. Trawlers drag wide-mouthed nets along the bottom to catch the ground fish like plaice, turbot, sole and cod. Sailing ships went far afield, but steam power, larger vessels and refrigeration allowed them to go farther and stay out longer.

Fishing vessel crew lists survive at the Public Record Office and elsewhere, for example there are 30,000 booklets of them for Grimsby which have recently been indexed (John Wilson). The examination system started for merchant seamen in 1845 was extended to the skippers and mates of fishing vessels in 1883. There are Registers of Competence in class BT 129 from as early as 1880, and Registers of Service (long experience) from 1883 in BT 130, both of which are indexed in BT 138 (Smith, Watts & Watts). The *Trinity House Petitions* and other charities for mariners are worth checking for fishermen, as are the civil registration records of deaths at sea. The mariner's occupation is described by Hurley (1991-1) and Marcombe, although neither are specific for fishermen.

The standard reference from the Public Record Office is Smith, Watts & Watts and there is a series of PRO leaflets on merchant seamen and ships, which include the fishing fleets. In addition Staples, of the Registry of Shipping & Seamen in Cardiff, gives a shorter but thorough review of their older records now at the PRO, and those up to the present day which they retain.

Pauper boys as young as seven could be apprenticed to the *sea service* and this included fishermen. Indexes of pauper apprentices, usually on a county or parish basis and thus available through county archives or on film, often reveal surviving indentures. Since parishes were eager to rid themselves of those requiring relief one should look for evidence in the parishes surrounding the earliest known fishing port at which he worked.

Fishing apprentices began to be registered in 1835 and surviving records are at the Public Record Office in classes BT 151-152. There is an Index of Apprentices 1824-1953 in BT 150. Many local records also survive, for example for Grimsby, which bound more than half of the total British sea fishing apprentices from the second half of the 19th century (Wood 1991), the registers of Grimsby fishing apprentices 1879-1937 contain many personal, family and career details (John Wilson).

There are earlier apprenticeship records at the Public Record Office, for example for 1639-1664 in the south east in HCA 30/897, and 1704-1757, 1804-1833 for Colchester, Essex in BT 167/101 (Wood 1991).

Related occupations include harvesting of shellfish and processing of fish onshore. Oyster dredging was particularly important around the Thames estuary at Colchester, Brightlingsea and Whitstable from even Neolithic times until the mid-20th century (Frost).

There was considerable movement of fishermen and *fisher lassies* between fishing ports and this should always be borne in mind when you lose a fishing family (John Wilson). Nearly all the *herring girls* who processed the North Sea catch were Scottish. They started their year in early spring in north east Scotland and as the herring shoals moved south so did they, working down the coast -Fraserburgh, Shields, and Scarborough, then on to Grimsby and Great Yarmouth and as far south as Ramsgate, Kent.

They returned home in the autumn to mend nets, scrub drifters and bait hooks ready for the next season (Wood 1997). Filbee has a description of *netmaking* carried out as a specialty around Bridport in Dorset.

Registration of fishing vessels was required from 1786, and details of surviving records can be found in Smith, Watts & Watts. This also has a list of the specific alphabetical *port letters* used by fishing boats, thus a boat registered at Dover had DR and a number, whilst one at Grimsby had GY and its number.

Whaling & Sealing

The principal species of whale of commercial interest were the Right Whale of the arctic and the Sperm Whale of the southern seas. The Right Whale produced blubber used for making soap and candles, and whalebone (baleen) valuable for manufacturing umbrellas and corsets. The Sperm Whale yielded blubber and oil, an extra-fine oil called spermaceti useful for lighting and lubrication, the wax-like ambergris important in perfumery, and ivory from the teeth. The British carried out whaling almost exclusively in the arctic and their quarry was the Greenland Right Whale, also known as the Bowhead Whale.

Owing to the severe depletion of stocks of Right Whales in the late 19th century the whalers started to hunt the Bottlenose Whale and other arctic mammals, especially seals. Their products, especially whale oil, were an important raw material of the Industrial Revolution during the whaling heyday from the late 18th through to the late 19th century. Peterhead, Aberdeenshire was the leading port and the furthest north, and other major ones were Aberdeen, Dundee and Leith in Scotland, together with Hull and Whitby in England. Good references include Buchan, and Credland with much detail and many photographs, and Abranson, the latter designed for younger readers but with great illustrations.

MANUFACTURING

Animal Products

⌑ Boot & Shoe Making

Shoemaking occupations that the family historian will come across frequently are:

- *Cobbler*—a worker in old leather, typically a shoe mender. The village cobbler was an essential link in the community, even after the introduction of machine-made boots and shoes (Wymer 1946).
- *Shoemaker (crydd* in Welsh*) and bootmaker*—those who made shoes, mainly out of leather, but ladies shoes were often of silk, satin and other textiles. A shoemaker would usually specialize in either men's shoes and boots, or ladies' shoes as the techniques differed (Hurley 1991-2). A nickname for a shoemaker was a snob; the meaning of a social climber was first used by Thackeray in the 19th century (R.L. Vickers). A *shoesmith* made horse-shoes.
- *Cordwainer*—at first anyone who worked in the fine leather from Cordoba (or Cordova), Spain called cordovan or cordwain. This included those who made belts, pouches, purses, trunks, leather bottles and glovers, as well as the preparers of leather (whitetawyers, curriers, tanners & dyers). Eventually the name came to mean only those who made fine footwear (Fothergill 1994, 1995).

- *Patten maker*—those who made the various styles of raised frames or overshoes slipped on over lady's house shoes to protect them from the mud.
- *Clog maker*—one who made wooden shoes.
- *Clicker*—foreman shoemaker who cuts out the leather and gives out work.
- *Hand binder or boot binder*—one who sewed together the upper leathers on a last, usually women, older children and old men.

Shoemakers led most craftsmen in literacy, and took a strong interest in politics; many were freethinkers and Dissenters from the Established Church. The lives and conditions of London boot and shoe makers were investigated by Mayhew who presents much useful detail (Thompson & Yeo). For the home craftsman, the whole family would assist, the women sewing (closing) uppers or hammering seams flat, whilst small children tied knots at the ends of seams.

The army was always a good customer for ready-made boots, and employed its own repairers in the field as well. The trade was one to which many pauper boys, as well as those from industrial and other reform schools, were apprenticed as a way of providing them with a means of earning a living. It was also an occupation to which handicapped men could manage, as it was considered light work. The trade is ubiquitous—every village having a population of about 300 people was able to support a shoemaker. In 1861 the census revealed over 250,000 people in the shoemaking trade, the sixth largest category of employment and rating higher than mining, railways or engineering at that time

(R.L. Vickers). Certain towns predominated when large-scale production commenced, including London and Northampton at the time of the Civil War, and other regional centres were Oxford, Bristol and York for the fashionable trade in the 17th-18th centuries (Swann). Wymer (1949) tells the story of King Alfred gathering a community of shoemakers to Northamptonshire in the late 9th century as there was a plentiful supply of oak bark for the leather tanning process. He was particularly concerned that his soldiers have good strong boots instead of sandals and set a high standard for manufacture which has continued in the county to this day. The Boot and Shoe Collection and index of shoemakers is appropriately located in Northampton.

The American Singer sewing machine was modified in 1856 to stitch leather and although resisted by the workers at first, from then on machinery started to replace hand labour both for outworkers and in the new factories. The Shire book on shoemaking (Swann) gives an excellent history, plentifully illustrated, whilst Hurley (1991-2) and Manners have descriptions of the work. Some history of the Cordwainers' Company is given by Fothergill (1995). Vickers gives a good description of the work and how the outwork system was organized, and also discusses the many surnames derived from the trade. Elsie Wright describes an imaginary visit to her shoemaker ancestors and how they lived, a delightfully different type of article.

⌑ Brushmaking

This trade encompasses the making of all types of brushes from hair brushes to carpet brushes, brooms, mops of all kinds and usually also wooden coal hods and the measures for corn (wheat) and coal.

The earliest brooms were besoms made of twigs, typically birch, and still in use by gardeners and Hallowe'en witches; their construction is covered by Arnold (1968, 1970), Manners, Sparkes (1991), Wymer (1946). Gentler and more efficient brushes made of animal hair mounted in wooden or bone backings were known to the Greeks and Romans, and methods remained fairly consistent until the advent of plastics in the mid-20th century.

Brushmakers worked in a *panshop*, with four men (*panhands*) around each *panframe* that contained a tub of hot pitch in which to dip the bundles of hair before insertion into the brush head.

The Brushmakers' Society was formed in 1747 to alleviate distress amongst members, and was the first trade union, although the law forbade that terminology then (Doughty 1993, 2001). Hurley (1991-2), Heskins and Doughty's two articles give descriptions of the work and the Brushmakers' Society, and Doughty (1993) lists clubhouses in 1829 and the tramping route for work. *The Society of Brushmakers' Descendants* runs an index of them.

⌑ Comb making

Combs were made from bullocks' horn, elephant and walrus ivory, tortoiseshell, and box or holly wood and Hurley (1991-1) and Watts (1994) describes their manufacture by hand. They were used not only for cleaning the hair but also for ornament, so that some were studded with precious stones. A machine for cutting combs was invented in 1803. Only the apprenticeships from 1744-1750 for the Combmakers' Company survive but have been indexed. (Webb 1997-2). There are two relevant indexes: Bowers runs an index of combmakers and Watts an index of combmakers and horners.

⌑ Featherworking

Featherworkers are chiefly women, and the birds most frequently plucked were the ostrich, heron, chicken cock (rooster), turkey, swan, peacock and goose, each for different purposes. Some of the uses for feathers have included ornamentation for women's and military hats, funeral plumes for horses and hearses, stuffing of bed coverings, quill pens, corsages and bridal bouquets. Hurley (1991-1) describes the traditional business and Dixon a modern one.

⌑ Horn working

Cow horn, and to a lesser extent that from rams, goats and deer, has been used in its natural state for a number of purposes just by cutting or sawing, heating, splitting and flattening. These include early windows, covering of horn books (children's alphabet primers), drinking cups, powder flasks, shoe horns, hearing trumpets and combs with the residue being ground for use as

fertilizer. Horn and tortoiseshell, another keratin animal product, can also be heated and moulded and accept a high polish, as well as being dense enough to accept being turned on a lathe. This allows their use in a multitude of household objects such as snuff boxes, spoons and ladles, rings, brooches and necklaces, ornaments, and mouldings (Katz). The work of the horner is described by Arnold (1968), and Manners, and Webb (1997-2) has indexed the apprenticeships of the Horners' Company 1731-1800. Watts has an index of combmakers and horners.

⌑ Horsehair working

Men and women horsehair workers have used the tails and manes of horses, ox tails and pig bristles to produce a large number of useful items. When used for stuffing purposes it first needed to be curled. Uses included:

- Brushes, including horse hair mixed with hog bristles for paint brushes.
- Violin bows, as it is the only hair of the required length of about 30" available in quantity.
- Textile furnishing where it provides the weft.
- Hair cloth for a variety of purposes, for example window blinds for the railways of South Africa, India and Brazil.
- Better quality mattresses and upholstery.
- Tailors required it for the inner linings of suits, and for stuffing country gentlemen's voluminous breaches.
- Dressmakers needed it for padding the broad-hipped Elizabethan dresses and Victorian crinolines.

- Milliners made the colossal French-style head-dresses of Marie-Antoinette's time from it.
- Wigmakers still use it for legal and theatrical wigs.
- Military plumes, fly whisks, and whips.
- Sieves, fishing lines and sporrans for Scotsmen.
- Linings for caps.

Information on the processing can be found in Manners, and Wymer (1949).

⌑ Leatherworking

The leather trades were highly important for the production of clothing, saddlery, containers and much else made of tanned hides (from large animals) or dressed skins (from smaller animals) before the advent of plastic. Large numbers of men were employed in the various processes particularly in towns, and hides from cattle, European buffalo, deer and horses, and skins from calves, goats, pigs, and seals have been utilized. At the end of the 18th century leather was the third most important manufacturing industry after wool and iron.

The great market for leather goods was Leadenhall and the Leathersellers' Company is amongst the wealthiest of the City livery companies.

Each leather craft had its own trade guild, such as the saddlers, shoemakers, glovemakers etc. Boot and shoe makers have been dealt with above; this section comprises three other groups of workers—those who process the hides into leather, saddlers, and other leather workers.

⌑ Tanning & Currying

Most towns had a section devoted to the processing of animal skins with its accompanying stench of putrefying flesh and tanning chemicals—it was usually the poorest end of the town. In London the trade was concentrated in Bermondsey, next to the docks at Rotherhithe. The animal skins would be received by the *tanners* from the butchers and first scraped free of fat and blood by the *beam-man*, then tanned by the *yardman*. The tanners for centuries used oak bark and other vegetable agents, but the later use of chemicals such as alum salts was a faster process. The hides were dried and smoothed by the *shedman* and were then ready for the *currier* who dressed them by shaving to an even thickness and applied oils and colour. There are many sources for descriptions of the tanners' and curriers' work, including Bailey (1982), Manners, Hurley (curriers 1991-1, tanners 1994), Wymer (1946) and Dymond (1995-1). Mayhew devoted a chapter to the tanners and curriers lives (Thompson & Yeo). Webb (2000-2) has indexed the apprenticeships of the Curriers' Company 1628-1800.

⌑ Saddlery & Harness Making

These trades were often combined by the village craftsman who would have also made many other leather items required locally, such as straps and belts. In towns, there was more specialization with a saddler turning out expensive riding saddles for the gentry, and the harness maker catering to the needs of the different breeds of working horses. Although both aspects of the work are now greatly reduced most books on old crafts contain descriptions of the trade. Examples to hand

include Wymer (1946), Manners, (Arnold 1968, 1970), Hurley (1991-2), Vickers (1996), Dixon (modern only). Articles in family history journals appear from time to time, such as those by Felgate, Paice, and Dymond (1995-2). Manners also has special sections on whip making and horse collars. Webb (1998-1) has indexed the few (1657-1666, and 1800) apprenticeships of the Saddlers Company remaining after WWII

⌑ Other Leather Crafts

Leather was also used for:

- Garments including tunics and jerkins, breeches, armour, spats, belts, hats, aprons, gauntlets, gloves, wallets and handbags.
- Shoes and boots.
- Wine and water bottles, water buckets, and black-jacks (drinking mugs), bombards (beer-jugs).
- Bags, pouches, luggage, laces and thongs, and cases for guns and binoculars.
- Sheaths and straps.
- Leather sheets for covering wagons, and later in coachmaking. The apprenticeships of the Coachmakers and Coach Harness Makers' Company 1677-1800 have been indexed (Webb 1998-12).
- Furnishings, such as chair seats and backs, bellows.
- Bookbinding.
- A specialized form of leatherwork known since pre-Conquest times is *falconry furniture making*; the furniture comprises the gloves, leashes, birds' hoods etc. and the craft is described by Manners.

⌑ Skinners & Furriers

Furriers used to be called skinners and they prepared the skins of fur-bearing mammals such as ermine, lambs and rabbit. Both tanner and skinner had to render the skin durable and supple, but whereas the tanner had to completely remove the hair, the skinner needed to preserve the fur on the skin. A similar but less harsh process of cleansing, tanning and currying has to take place before the skins pass to the cutters who sort and seam the furs into usable pieces (Wymer 1949).

⌑ Trunk making

This trade made trunks, chests, portmanteaus, buckets and cases for holding such items as plate and knives. Trunks were made of wood covered with leather, horse or seal skin, or shark skin (shagreen), then lined with paper. A description of the work is included by Hurley (1991-2).

⌑ Wool industry

Woollen cloth has been made since at least the iron age in England and the Romans thought highly of English wool and expanded the industry substantially. During the Middle Ages and early modern period wool was the principle industry in the British Isles in both town and country. Flemish weavers, fullers and dyers settled in England in the 1330s bringing with them the skills necessary to revitalize the making of cloth from wool, resulting in 20 times the amount of cloth being exported by 1550. Every town and village had a connection somehow with making woollen cloth, and spinning wheels and handlooms were found in almost every home.

The *fulling mill*, or pandy in Welsh, was as common as the corn mill, and everywhere there were fields full of tenting frames for stretching and drying the cloth. In the 16th century further Dutch and Walloon religious refugees brought weaving skills to towns such as Norwich and Colchester in East Anglia, making the *new draperies* from combed wool (*worsteds*), and other mixes of long wool, silk and linen yarn such as *bays, tufted taffeties, wrought velvets* and *braunched satins*.

Inn and pub signs exemplifying the wool trade remain all over the country; examples include the *Golden Fleece*, the *Lamb* and the *Woolpack* (Delderfield). A good history of the wool industry is given in the well-illustrated Shire book by Aspin (1982), and briefer account is given by Bailey (1982).

Profits were so great that huge churches were built by merchants in quite small towns and villages especially in the Cotswolds, West Country and East Anglia. The woollen industry enjoyed many privileges since it was Britain's principal source of wealth. Many statutes were enacted to protect and encourage the trade, two significant ones being:

- *1614 Prohibition of export of raw wool* lasting until 1824. This was to ensure a plentiful supply of wool at low prices for the British cloth industry in the face of growing and lucrative exports. However, the foreign demand was so great that the law gave rise to smuggling of wool out of the country on a vast scale by the owlers.

- *Burial in Wool Acts of 1667 and 1678*, lasting until 1814 but widely disregarded long before that. Burials had to be in woollen shrouds unless a fine was paid for other materials.

Before the Industrial Revolution and the consequent advent of cotton the woollen industry was the nation's major industrial employer and many local treatises have been written about it (Hey). In the 18th-19th centuries the use of water power in the West Riding of Yorkshire allowed this area to rival the former dominance of the southern communities. Mechanization of preparation and spinning processes occurred well before weaving, and domestic production by outworkers organized by middle-man clothiers, remained more important than factory output until well into the 19th century, but even then small mills and workshops were more prevalent than large factories (Hey).

The raw wool merchants were called *broggers* and *staplers*, and those who organized the manufacture of the cloth were termed *clothiers*. Amongst the products were cloths of many varieties, furnishing fabrics, knitwear, blankets, carpets and felt. There are three basic types of cloth:

- *Woollen cloth* is woven from yarns containing fibres lying in various directions, the cloth having a fluffy surface. Fine woollens are made from the shorter fibres.
- *Worsted cloth* is woven from yarns spun from combed wool, so the fibres lay parallel and the cloth is smooth. Worsteds use mainly the longer fibres.

- *Felt* is a non-woven material made by compression, heat and moisture.

These are produced from the fleece by several different processes:

- *Sorting of fleeces* by hand into different qualities.
- *Scouring* which removes dirt, natural grease and other impurities. Lanolin, used in cosmetics, soaps, ointments and polishes, is an important by-product from the grease component. Formerly scouring was carried out in *fulling mills* by one of a number of procedures:
- Immersion in stale urine (*lant*) or hog's dung and then beating.
- Use of *fullers' (diatomaceous) earth.*
- Nowadays, several washings with detergent.

From this point the procedures for woollen and worsted cloths differ. For **woollen cloths** they will undergo:

- *Blending* whereby wools of different qualities and colours are mixed together.
- *Carding* to tease the wool out into a fine web of intermingled fibres was originally done by working the wool between two hand-held boards closely set with very short wires in the manner of a wire brush. Carding machines consist of a series of large and small cylinders covered with closely set wire teeth which tease out the fibres from an entangled mass into a filmy web.

For **worsted yarn** the wool is straightened out, washed and dried and then combed to remove the short fibres (*noils*). The long fibres are combed into a sliver and wound into a ball called a top. The *woolcomber*'s art is described in detail by Jackie Evans, and Hurley (1991-1), and it was the last to be mechanized, notably through the efforts of the Cartwrights (see Chaloner).

Spinning with distaff and spindle has been done from prehistoric times, until the early 1800s in remoter districts, but the spinning wheel enhanced production from the 13th century so that only ten spinners were needed to produce thread for one weaving loom. It was typically women's work, giving rise to the original meaning of the word *spinster* as spinning woman, and genealogists refer to the female line as the *distaff side*. The purpose was to produce a continuous wool thread with a twist, firm enough for weaving. The inventions of Hargreaves, Arkwright and Crompton (see Chaloner) revolutionized the process so that by the end of the 19th century most thread was produced mechanically. The history and craft of spinning is covered by Leadbetter, Wymer (1946), Filbee, Aspin (1995), and Hurley (1991-1), and there are smaller sections on the craft in Aspin (1982), and Dixon. Newly woven cloth is *fulled* or *wa(u)lked* or *tucked*, that is, thickened and cleaned by a person known as a fuller in southern and eastern England, a wa(u)lker in the west and north, or a tucker in south western counties (Reaney & Wilson). This was formerly done by trampling the cloth underfoot in a tub of warm soft water to which a detergent such as fullers' earth has been added.

The friction causes the fibres to mat together, or felt, which reduces the size of the piece by up to a third. Fulling/walk/tuck mills powered by water occur as early as 1135 so were the earliest part of the wool industry to be mechanized, and are illustrated by Aspin. Passmore (1992-2) has a good article on fullers and tuckers.

The cloth then had to be tentered or dried in the open air whilst stretched out on *tenter frames* containing rows of *tenterhooks* to anchor the cloth, giving rise to the phrase *on tenterhooks* meaning 'in a state of suspense or mental anguish'.

Once the cloth was dry the fuller then *finished* it by cropping the *knap* so it was smooth, and could produce a number of different finishes by *raising the pile* of the cloth either when wet or dry using the spiky heads of teasel plants in a wood frame called a bat. This *rowing*, *teaselling* or *teazle knapping* was later mechanized (see Aspin), and Wymer (1946) comments on current growing of teasels for this process.

Dying of the wool could take place at various stages in the production after the grease had been removed. *Feltmaking* was a small but important section of the industry that produced a non-woven material called *pressed felt* that has a huge variety of applications, from hats to carpets, piano hammers and inking rollers to toys. The *feltmaker* uses heat, moisture, pressure and vibration to make the wool fibres lock together. The product may be thin or thick, soft and bulky or so solid that a saw is needed to cut it.

Different guilds regulated different parts of the woollen industry and many have left records; apprenticeships have been indexed for the Woolmens' Company (anyone in the wool trade) 1665-1828 (Webb 1997-1), the Dyers' Company 1706-1746 (Webb 1999-2), and the Feltmakers' Company 1678-82, 1692-1800 (Webb 2002-1). Records of the Clothworkers' Company (an amalgamation of the Fullers and Shearmen) 1788-1803 are available on fiche from the Society of Genealogists (2000) giving names and addresses of masters, wardens, assistants and livery members from all over England, but mainly in the London area.

Carts, Coaches, Wagons & Wheels

* Cart & Wagon Making

Carts, which had two wheels, were made by cartwrights and were much lighter and of less complicated construction than wagons as they had no complex steering gear. They were thus cheaper to build and they were also more manoeuvrable and able to tip, so used wherever possible for odd hauling jobs, and some were fitted with plank seats to carry passengers. Wagons or wains had four wheels, the front ones always being smaller than the rear ones, and their makers were termed wainwrights. Oak pins were mostly used in preference to nails, and the finished vehicles were painted in the district's traditional colours—predominantly red, royal blue and buff. Construction details are given by Manners, and examples can be found in local agricultural museums.

* Coachmaking

Coachmakers made all kinds of chaises, coaches and other vehicles for carrying people, at first only ladies as 'real men' would ride a horse! They consisted of two parts: the body housed the passengers and was covered with leather and lined inside with cloth stuffed with horse hair; the carriage supported the body and was attached to the wheels and the horses. The front wheels were smaller so as to allow easier turning. There were many different kinds and sizes ranging from eight-horse stage coaches to one-horse cabs. He would employ workmen such as body-makers, carriage-makers, trimmers, painters, body painters and herald painters for armorial bearings and other artistic decoration as required. Descriptive pieces about coachmaking are given by Hurley (1991-1) and Wymer (1949). The apprenticeships for the Coachmakers and Coach Harness Makers' Company 1677-1800 have been indexed by Webb (1998-12). May's *Victorian & Edwardian Horse Cabs* vividly describes the many types of cabs and the lives of the cabmen.

* Motorized vehicles

Shire has a fleet of books on old motorized vehicles including Woodhams on *lorries* (trucks for North Americans), Kaye on *trolleybuses*, Keith Turner on *trams*, Whitehead on fire engines, Batten on *ambulances*, a series on different makes of cars, and even one on *children's cars* by Pennell. The industry's most notable personalities and their work are subjects of Shire books by Hodge on Richard *Trevithick*, engineer of steam road locomotives, and by Hull on Lord *Nuffield* of Morris Motors fame.

✳ Wheel making

The wheelwright was one of the essential craftsmen in every village and each wheel was custom made for the exact cart, carriage or other purpose for which it was intended. He made the woodwork for wheels, and then the local blacksmith added the iron rim. Wheelwrights often also made carts and wagons, they did much repair work and in smaller villages would have undertaken general carpentry and joinery as well, including making of coffins. Descriptions of the work are given by Purser, Manners, Carter (1992-2), Hurley (1991-2), Wymer (1946), Arnold (1968, 1970), and comprehensively by Bailey (1975).

Chemicals, Gas & Fuel

A good place to start is the survey of the chemical and soap industries by Ray Vickers (1993-2). Formerly every household made necessary soaps, dyes, medicines and perfumes from natural ingredients, but gradually special trades developed in different chemicals. The chemical industry can be divided into the older *fine chemical* portion producing fairly pure chemicals in small quantities, although mass production came later, and the more recent *heavy chemical industry* which produced less pure materials in large quantities.

⇨ Dyes

The government of Elizabeth I grew concerned over the high prices of imported dyes in the 1570s and 1580s and so actively encouraged the cultivation of plants that produced the textile dyes including these major ones:

- ***Woad or wad***. The cultivation and harvest of woad employed large numbers of women and children for four months a year. When picked, the leaves were processed through a portable woadmill supplied by itinerant woadmen to produce the blue, black & purple dyes. Billington runs an index of woad people, those who grew and processed woad, primarily in the midlands.
- ***Madder***. This plant from India and Africa, whose roots produce red, maroon, chocolate and terracotta dyes, started to be grown around London in the 1620s. It was important worldwide and by 1886 the world production was 70,000 tons per annum. The synthetic constituent, alizarin, was discovered and produced in the 1930s from anthracene and this rapidly ousted the vegetable source. My father's allergy to alizarin forced him to give up textile printing and choose another trade.
- ***Saffron***. The saffron crocus has been grown in East Anglia since the 16th century not only for its orange dye, but also as a condiment, medicine and perfume. Planted in midsummer for harvest in the autumn, typically before a barley planting, it was not used after about 1750.
- ***Weld***, or dyer's weed, grown especially around Canterbury and Wye, Kent, produced a yellow dye.

Imported dye sources included:

- Insects such as the cochineal beetle (red).
- Ground wood of certain foreign trees, which took place in east Lancashire mills various dark colours).
- Indigo, a plant from southern Asia (blue-purple).

Hundreds of synthetic, coal-based dyes were manufactured in south Lancashire from the 19th century. Many dyes required the use of another chemical mordant in order to make them fast (Arnold 1968). Dyes were produced by the *dyers* and sold by specialists called *drysalters*.

⇨ Explosives

The *explosives* industry is the subject of a Shire book by Crocker, and articles by Bailey (1982) and Percival. Factories were at Faversham, (a major centre which commenced in the mid-16th century) and Dartford in Kent, Waltham Abbey in Essex, Hounslow and Bedfont in Middlesex as well as Ballincollig, Co. Cork, Ireland. As in other specialized industries workers moved between these sites, handy knowledge to have when the trail goes cold in one area.

⇨ Gases

Chaloner has a chapter on the early history of gas in Britain, *ethylene* (or *olefiant gas*) was a subject of discussion by Wood (2001-2), whilst Gledhill is the author of the Shire book on gas lighting. Mitchell has an index of over 200,000 persons associated with the gas industry in Great Britain, mainly from 1800-1949.

⇨ Industrial Chemicals

Products such as hydrochloric, sulphuric and nitric acids, ammonia, coal tar, alkalis for soap and glass, and potash and other fertilizers are included here. Acids were expensive to make until the 1740s invention of the lead-chamber process by Roebuck. The best soda and potash had been imported from the Mediterranean but

this was curtailed during the Napoleonic Wars, so from 1780 vast quantities of seaweed (kelp) ash from Wales, Cornwall and Scotland was utilized, until the Leblanc process became usable in 1820 (Vickers 1993-2). These heavy chemicals were made near the great rivers in the north west (the Mersey, especially at Runcorn, Warrington and Widnes), the north east (the Tyne) and on the Clyde in Scotland.

The Cheshire Record Office has particularly good records of the chemical industry in the huge *Dickenson Collection*, which includes wage books and accident reports. Collections for the other two areas are housed in the Lancashire and Tyne & Wear archives respectively. Chaloner has written on the work of Ludwig and Alfred Mond in the development of the chemical industry. Pike and Walsh discuss *copperas*, also known as *sulphate of iron* or *green vitriol*, of vital importance as a mordant for dying and as a source of sulphur and sulphuric acid.

⇨ Oils & Paints

Many family historians have an *oil and colour man* in their family whom you went to before the advent of ready-mixed paint. They sold the colourings and the linseed oil and turpentine with which you mixed them, and they also sold oil for lamps, (see Meadows), and a lot of other household chemicals and wares. They often turned their hands to associated trades such as painting and papering, plumbing and glazing as well.

⇨ Perfumes

Oils could also be used to extract chemicals from plants, and many perfumes were obtained this way. The most common fragrance in England was lavender and it was also used medicinally. The main growing area from the late 19th century has been northern Norfolk.

⇨ Plastics

Plastics are not 20th century inventions; a plastic is simply a material that can be shaped during processing and man has been using naturally occurring forms for thousands of years. Almost all of them contain organic polymers, long chain-like molecules based on carbon. Chemical modification of natural forms began in the mid-19th century, and synthetic plastics do belong to the last hundred years. Plenty of 19th-20th century urban ancestors will be found as workers in these industries supplying the needs of the emerging middle class. *Early Plastics* by Katz is the primary reference for the descriptions which follow. Plastics derived from animals include:

- *Casein* from skim milk was marketed as *Galalith, Erinoid, Tortoisene, Ivorine etc.* moulded into candlesticks, spoons, gaming chips and dice, buttons, and beads.
- *Horn* and *tortoiseshell.*
- *Shellac* comes from the secretion of a beetle found in India and Malaya. Anciently it was used for coating mummies, and much later as a stiffening for bowler hats, and compounded with a filler to produce sound records, photo and visiting card cases and other objects.

Plastics from the plant world include:

- *Amber*, a golden fossilized resin used for varnish and carved to make jewellery and crucifixes.
- *Bitumen*, one of the earliest organic moulding materials and a product of prehistoric vegetation. Its insulation capacities were exploited in the electrical industry.
- *Celluloid*, *Parkesine*, *Xylonite* and *Ivoride* are semi-synthetic inventions based on cotton fibres. Most famously used in cine film, but hundreds of other celluloid products included dolls and other toys, haircombs, table tennis balls and imitation ivory for book covers, cutlery handles etc.
- *Cellulose Acetate*, a modified cotton product used for waterproofing, rayon fibre and many moulded domestic articles.
- *Gutta Percha* is similar to rubber and came from the bark of an Indonesian tree. It was used for a wide range of moulded products including tubing, soles for boots and shoes, drinking mugs, toys, mirrors, friezes and acid-proof bottles and buckets.
- *Lac* is tapped from lacquer trees in east Asia and was mostly used as a varnish.
- *Hard rubber*, *vulcanite* and *ebonite* are all varieties of naturally occurring latex, a product of Brazilian trees first brought to Europe in 1736. Latex rubber was used as an eraser, and as a waterproofing material, especially in raincoats. When vulcanized (compounded with sulphur) it formed the basis of the modern rubber industry. Soft rubber is used for everything from tires to rubber (elastic) bands, hoses, and boots. Another form known as vulcanite,

ebonite or hard rubber was used for telephones, pumps, valves, buckets and as a comfortable base for dentures. Chaloner has a chapter on the history of the rubber industry.

- *Papier mâché*, *pulp ware* and *bois durci* are not strictly plastics but based on the polymer cellulose and processed by heat moulding. Products from papier mâché included trays, spectacle cases, and tea caddies; pulp ware formed chairs, fancy platters, mining and pith helmets; bois durci inkwells, desk sets, plaques and picture frames are known.

Early synthetic plastics developed from coal, and now mainly from petroleum and natural gas, were:

- *Phenol formaldehyde* or *phenolic* is best known by one of its many tradenames, Bakelite, in the first handset telephone, early radio cases, deskware and containers always in dark colours.
- *Urea formaldehyde* offered a range of lighter colours for plastic tableware, for example the *Beetleware* and *Bandalasta* ranges, and much else,

⇨ Soaps & detergents

These were particularly needed for cleaning fleeces for the manufacture of woollens, as well as cotton and linen textiles, but there were a variety of other markets as well. The soap industry comprised two divisions, the one making soft soap for industry, the other producing hard soap for household uses. Various oils were available including fish, whale and seal, lard and beef and mutton tallow and were used as follows (Vickers):

- Best quality oils were used for cookery.

- Second best oils used for making candles. A description of *tallow-chandlering* is given by Hurley (1991-1), and Webb (2000-3) has indexed the apprenticeships of the Wax Chandlers' Company 1666-1800 but the full extant range is 1596-1979.
- Poorest quality oils were used for soaps and lubricants, particularly in towns like Norwich, London and Bristol where the necessary potash and tallow could be imported cheaply. A description of *soap boiling* is given by Hurley (1991-1), and by Vickers (1993-1). As there was a tax on soap from 1715-1853 *soap makers* can be found in tax records kept at county archives. There is a list of all licensed soap makers for 1833 in Appendix 13 of the 17th Report of the Excise Commissioners, Parliamentary Papers 1836 XXVI (Vickers). During the 19th century there were further refinements in making toilet soaps, and the industry settled into two areas. In the north, especially around the River Mersey, the cheap bulk soaps were made. The southern firms, particularly around London, produced high quality toilet soaps. Later developments by Levers in Port Sunlight are described by Vickers.

Clocks, Watches, Eyeglasses & Jewellery

❖ Clock & Watch Making

Very early mechanical timepieces and public clocks were made by blacksmiths, and clockmakers were members of the Blacksmiths' Company before their own was established in 1631. As few people could read and write the demand for domestic clocks was not appreciable until the late 16th century. These new, smaller clocks were made by locksmiths who filed cold iron on benches, rather than by the blacksmiths who hammered out heated metal. At first the wall clock was the standard, but about 1658 an English invention, the *longcase* (or *grandfather*) clock made its appearance. The faces were from eight to twelve inches in diameter with cases six to 9 feet or more tall. Smaller versions were known as *grandmother clocks*. It is probable that cabinet makers made the first cases, but as the trade grew then the specialty of *clock case maker* developed.

The horology trade, which included both clock and watchmakers, concentrated in Clerkenwell in the London area, especially after the Great Fire of 1666. By the end of the 18th century some eight thousand workers were engaged in the business in Clerkenwell and turned out many of the best machines in the world. Others set up shop in important market towns where there would be a steady stream of gentry and farmers as customers.

The craft suffered from the import of Swiss watches and Pitt's 1797-8 tax on the ownership of clocks, as well as when Gladstone removed tariffs on foreign clocks & watches in 1861.

At first a *clock* was a machine that published the time, for example by striking a bell, and a *watch* showed the time. Gradually the term watch became associated with smaller machines carried in the pocket, and the term clock restricted to larger movements whether they struck the hour or not. Watches that strike the hour are called *repeating watches* (Hurley 1991-2). In the beginning, watches were actually made by one man, but since the 18th century watchmakers rarely made any of the parts of a watch. They relied on other tradesmen to do this, their skill being in assembling the movements, adjusting the parts and finishing the whole machine.

The history of the clockmakers' craft is discussed by Wymer (1949) and Ulyett with smaller accounts by Bailey (1982) and Arnold (1970). In the Shire series Greenlaw has written on longcase clocks, Wotton on anniversary clocks, and Wotton & Oliver on marble clocks. The Victoria & Albert Museum in London has a fine collection of watches which formed the basis of a descriptive book by Hayward. Weiss has an extremely detailed history of the trade and descriptions of the how each part was made and how watches were assembled. A briefer description can be found in Hurley (1991-2).

Names and information about individual clockmakers and watchmakers can be found in Britten, Wallis & Wallis (1993), and in the various books on these

craftsmen in specific counties, for example Lancashire and Westmorland (Loomes), Shropshire (Elliot), and Dorset & Channel Islands (Tribe & Whatmore). 300 years of apprentices in the Clockmakers' Company are listed by Atkins (chart 23), and advertisements for watchmakers and clockmakers are given in Buckley & Buckley (chart 24). Clockmakers' names can often be found in churchwardens' accounts when they were paid to clean and repair the church clock. Many were nonconformists and they tended to leave wills.

CHART 23:
Examples of Listings of Watchmakers Apprentices from Atkins (Film 0994278)

ACAM, Robert son of John of St. Giles Cripplegate, leather gilder deceased. Apprenticed 28 July 1767 for 7 years to Richard SIMNER, Roebuck Court, St. Luke Old St, watchmaker for £15, £6 of which was paid by the Edward

DEARMER Charity of St. Giles Cripplegate. Gained freedom of Company 5 Sep 1774.

DAVIDGE, William son of William late of Cirencester, Gloucestershire innholder. Apprenticed 4 Jul 1737 for 7 years to Robert FOULKES.

DAVIS, John son of Thomas of Allhallows the Great, Thames Street. Apprenticed 2 Sep 1760 for 7 years to John LIGHT, turned over to John SHROWSBRIDGE, citizen and plaisterer for £6.6s. Gained freedom of Company 10 Oct 1768.

TOPPING, John. Apprenticed 29 Sep 1691 for 7 years to Edward

NORRIS, turned over to William GRIMES.

❖ Eyeglasses

The optician made spectacles, opera glasses and reading glasses as well as numerous other optical devices and Hurley's description (1994) dwells mainly on the latter devices. There are two relevant Shire books: Watson on *binoculars, opera glasses & field glasses*, and Davidson & MacGregor on *spectacles, lorgnettes & monocles*. The apprenticeships of the Spectaclemakers' Company 1666-1800 have been indexed by Webb (1998-3).

CHART 24:
18th Century Newspaper Items on Watchmakers & Clockmakers (Film 0994278)

Exeter Mercury 28 June 1765 George FLASHMAN, clockmaker and watchmaker has removed from St. Peter's Church yard to Fore Street.

Northampton Mercury 30 July 1808 Watch # 9167 made by Richard WEBDEN is lost.

London Gazetteer of 5 July 1763 notes that Zachariah ABRAHAMS watchmaker of Leadenhall Street is not dead as reported.

Universal Magazine of April 1773 reports that Rebecca KNIBBS clockmaker, late of Devonshire Street, Red Lion Square has declared bankruptcy.

Daily Advertiser of 6 Feb 1796 advertises FLASHMAN watchmaker of 18 Fleet Street.

Morning Herald of 7 July 1801 reports that FLASHMAN of Fleet Street was one of the stewards at the Annual Dinner of the Clockmakers & Watchmakers.

❖ Jewellery

An account of the trade of the jeweller is given by Hurley (1991-1), and there are little gems amongst the Shire books: Luthi on *sentimental jewellery*, James on *antique jewellery*, and Eckstein & Firkins on both *gentlemen's dress accessories* and that essential for ladies' huge hats, the *hatpin*.

Culme gives short biographies of jewellers in the London Assay Office Registers 1838-1914.

Clothing & Needlecraft

Dress making

The craft of dressmaking grew out of the older one of tailoring, particularly as lighter and finer materials came into vogue. Before the 19th century garments were usually made at home from supplies of material and haberdashery purchased from local markets and fairs or travelling pedlars.

They were expensive to produce, worn a long time, mended, unpicked and turned inside out to ensure the best material showed. They were never thrown away but sold secondhand further down the social scale, when they were known as *slops*, or the better parts cut out to make children's clothes.

Amongst the poor and middle class this thrifty attitude certainly continued, tiding them through two World Wars and the 1930s Depression.

Three significant factors came together during the 19th century:

- Better communications, especially the railways from the 1830s, meant that it was possible to mass produce garments and sell them far away.
- The development of the sewing machine by Singer in the 1850s from earlier prototypes.
- Manufacturing and retailing in tailoring and dressmaking were much enhanced by the poor but skilled Jews fleeing Tsarist oppression in Eastern Europe during the 19th century.

The middle classes were able to afford the new mass-produced, off-the-peg clothing but at a price to the women employed to make them. There were two main types of workers:

- Garment out-workers, who were part of the 'sweated trades', could turn up in the census as *slop workers, slop maker, waistcoat makers, shirt workers, needlewomen* or even *female/male operatives*. They received their work from a *piece-master* or *piece-mistress* who obtained it from a warehouse. All were poorly paid; Mayhew devoted much effort to describing the life and conditions of the slop workers, and needle-women of London (Thompson & Yeo). He found that nearly every one was forced into prostitution to simply buy enough food. Mayhew's description of the social conditions is well worth reading.
- *Dressmakers, mantua-makers,* or *seamstresses, sempstresses*, (and sometimes also called *needle-women* as were the lower class workers), were those catering to the upper classes and learned

their trade through an apprenticeship. This kind of needlework was one of the few respectable avenues to earn a living open to women, and for those families who could afford the premium it was certainly a better occupation than domestic service. The pay was better than the slop-workers, although the long hours of hard work and eye-strain were similar. A skilled woman would set up a business near to the source of her supplies, (silk and textile merchants and haberdashers), with a brass plate advertising her business at the front door. She employed journey-women and apprentices in a workroom. Other employees might work from home, fitting in with other household tasks. A sewing machine was often bought on the installment plan known as *hire purchase*. Some set up one-room dressmaking shops in their homes where clients could be measured and fitted, and might take on apprentices. Descriptions of dressmaking can be found in Hurley (1991-2) and Bond.

Embroidery

Embroidery was well established in England by 1562 when the Broderers' Company, mainly men, received their charter. Their surviving apprenticeships 1679-1713 and 1763-1800 have been indexed by Webb (1997-2). Huge tapestries kept the chill from castle walls, churches were resplendent with wall hangings, altar cloths, kneelers (see a modern project described by Dixon), and the clergy's vestments.

The upper classes preferred richly embroidered gowns and waistcoats whilst heralds & noblemen paraded in

their elaborately decorated robes. A great variety of styles of embroidery was also carried out by ordinary town and country women to decorate clothing and household articles. Girls learned the art very young and produced samplers usually containing their name and the date plus examples of the various stitches which was used as a reference later on.

In this category Shire books have so far produced books on *Ayrshire & other whitework* and *embroidered Georgian pictures* (both by Swain), and *beadwork* and *samplers* (both by Clabburn).

Fan Making

Folding fans had been in use in China for over 500 years before they arrived in England in the 16th century and the Fanmakers' Company was one of the later ones, being chartered in 1709. Its apprenticeships from 1775-1805 are all that survive and these have been indexed by Webb (1997-2). Fans were of-course only for the wealthy, and were at their most elaborate in the 18th century having ivory slats with painted silk or skin mounts and often encrustations of jewels, whilst Edwardian ones could be embroidered and have shiny spangles.

The Eyewitness book on Costume (Rowland Warne) has some good illustrations and Alexander (2002) has a full description of the craft with examples.

Glove making

Glovemaking was already a craft distinct from its parent trade of tanning by 1349 when the Glovers Company was granted its own charter. The trade outside London concentrated in three forested areas:

- Wychwood Royal Forest in West Oxfordshire run from the town of Woodstock, and later in Charlbury as well, known for their finer work and ornamental gloves for the aristocracy, as well as large contracts for military gloves.
- Quantock Hills of Somerset run from Yeovil which produced heavy duty protective gloves for labouring, driving and sports.
- Malvern Hills in Worcestershire run from Worcester, Hereford, Ludlow and Leominster

Gloves were made from the skins of sheep, does, horses, chickens and goats as well as from satin, silk, velvet and worsted. Gloves were popular as gifts, and featured in wills as presents for the mourners.

The dressing, staining and cutting out of the skins was done by men in the factory. Dressing consisted of several stages of soaking and washing in different liquids; then came staking to restore suppleness, and paring the leather to a uniform thickness. The finished material was then cut into squares (*cutting*) and then into the shape of the hand (*slitting*).

The master glovers, who were usually men, would hand out bundles of cut skins or other material to a carrier woman who distributed these to the women outworkers

in their homes where they would be hand sewn. *Agents*, or *overlookers*, supervised the quality of the work and taught apprentices if they weren't taught at home.

From 1463 the English trade was protected by import duties on the better-quality French and Italian gloves, but in 1826 these were lifted. Cheap, well-made foreign gloves flooded in, causing severe depression in the English industry (Filbee) and widespread distress in the glovemaking areas noted above. However, the industry re-organized itself and quality improved by 1840, especially in Somerset and Oxfordshire. The revival was helped by an improved distribution system on the new railways, and by the introduction of the sewing machine in the 1850s, hired or paid for by instalment. Filbee and Pearl (1990) give good histories and descriptions of earlier glovemaking, and 20th century glove-making companies are described by Hudson (1980-1). The Glovers' Company apprenticeships 1675-9, 1735-48, and 1766-1804 have been indexed (Webb 1996-4).

Hatting

Stuff or *felt hats*, popular during the 18th century and to about 1840 (Thompson & Yeo), were made of the fur or hair of beaver, rabbit, hare, mole, or goat (erroneously termed camel's hair since it was conveyed by camel to the ports of Aleppo, Syria and Smyrna, Turkey), and sometimes mixed with wool.

The short, thick, soft hair is first scraped off the skin and separated from the longer and stiffer parts, and then made into a close-packed felt. Next came stiffening

with glue and chemicals, then shaping, dying, finishing and lining. The details can be found in Hurley (1991-1) and Wymer (1949). The term *mad as a hatter* derives from the habit of compulsive, involuntary movements (St. Vitus' Dance) produced by handling the poisonous mercury in hatting chemicals. In London, the major hatting district was in Southwark and Bermondsey.

Silk and *velvet hats* had become the staple of the industry by 1850 (Thompson & Yeo), and they were formed over a stiffened calico body. Mayhew's investigations into the trade and living conditions of hatters can be found in Thompson & Yeo.

The *straw-hat* industry was firmly established in southern Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire and Hertfordshire by the end of the 17th century (Filbee). Straw plait was made there by women and children for many purposes, and straw bonnets, hats and boaters became very fashionable in the 19th century.

Skilled plaiters capable of producing many intricate patterns would earn more than those who made up articles from the plait. The history and practice of straw-hat making are described by Filbee and Hurley (1991-1).

Knitting

Knitting locally produced and spun wool for the needs of her family has always been part of the housewife's duties. Warm gloves, stockings, waistcoats, caps, petticoats and dresses were ubiquitous, and specialties included sweaters, vests, pants and jackets for fishermen.

As rural areas lost their traditional employment opportunities, hand knitting was taken up by men, women and children as an extra source of income even though the pay was meagre. Several remote areas had unique types of knitted clothing, such as the fishermen's *guernseys* (or *ganseys*) and *jerseys*, and even particular patterns associated with different villages or families.

Men would be found knitting whilst walking or driving carts to market, and women whilst doing a multitude of other tasks.

Women often knitted together in groups for company and to share precious light and heat, and such groups have been revived in the 20th century for pleasure and profit in many parts of the countryside.

Hand knitting continued well after the invention of the knitting machine. Filbee offers a detailed account of the craft all over Britain, whilst Wymer (1946) talks about a modern Hampshire knitting group and Dixon about fishermen's ganseys.

Lace, Crochet & Tatting

There were two kinds of lace known in England; first came the *needle lace* which was a kind of embroidery. In the 1560s Flemish religious refugees settled in Devon and the East Midlands bringing with them their craft of *pillow lace* making, which quickly became the favoured kind. Further Flemish and French Huguenots arrived around 1572, at the end of the 16th century, and during the French revolution a hundred years later, strengthening the industry with further techniques and patterns.

The major areas of settlement and development of pillow-lace making were firstly around Cranfield in Bedfordshire; Newport Pagnell, Olney and Buckingham in Buckinghamshire; and Northamptonshire; and secondly around Honiton and Beer in Devon. The latter craftswomen worked the pattern first and then *grounded* it with meshing, but those in the East Midlands worked the pattern and background at the same time.

Studying historic paintings can give an idea of the different fashions using lace from the enormous Elizabethan ruffs and fancy stocking fronts, to later lace collars and the turned-down linings of high boots, lace caps, aprons, gloves, petticoats, nightshirts and handkerchiefs, lace frills on shirts, and decorated fans. The Victorians had a passion for lace, but by the early 1900s it was no longer considered de rigueur.

The craft has always been a cottage industry and the preserve of women and children as young as five, with the latter being sent to lace school in preference to

learning the 3 R's in the lace districts. The pay was always extremely poor, but often made the difference between survival and starvation when added to a labouring man's wages. In 1809 a bobbin net machine was patented and so began the industrialization of lace making and the demise of the hand craft. Continental lace was considered superior and the English trade had been protected for hundreds of years, hence lace's popularity with smugglers.

When these restrictions on importing foreign lace were lifted it meant a further drastic reduction in work for the cottagers. During the 19th century women and girls were employed in the machine lace factories of Nottinghamshire, Derbyshire and Leicestershire and the trade today is centred on Nottingham. Hand made lace is of better quality than the machine product but is now far more expensive, and a traditional wedding favourite with royalty, so the craft survives, especially around Honiton.

Discussions on the history and techniques of lace making can be found in Hurley (1991-1), Wymer (1946), Filbee (very detailed), Manners, Bailey (1982, who concentrates on the modern lace industry), Hopewell, and Arnold (1968- quite detailed, 1970). The making of Honiton lace is described by Keen, and the Northamptonshire craft by Bell. Earnshaw has written on the identification of lace, and Dixon and Palmer on the related crafts of crocheting, and tatting respectively. An index of lacemakers is run by Hanney.

Millinery

Millinery is concerned with making caps, bonnets, scarves, cloaks and all ladies' outer clothing except dresses. Milliners were overwhelmingly female and came from a very wide range of societal levels, including 'daughters of clergymen, military & naval officers, surgeons, farmers and tradesmen of all descriptions' (Thompson & Yeo). A girl would first be apprenticed probably in her local town, then either work as an assistant (either living in or as a day-worker), or if she wanted to eventually establish her own business she would go to London as an *improver*, there to learn the latest fashionable skills. She could work her way up to third-, second- then first-hand with increasing responsibilities in a large millinery house, and usually lodged and boarded in. Lower class millinery houses abound as well, as do *wardrobe shops* where secondhand clothes were mended or remade for resale. Hurley (1991-1) describes the intricacies of the trade, Mayhew has a section on the life and conditions of milliners (Thompson & Yeo) and Clabburn has a specialist publication on shawls.

Quilting & Patchwork

Quilting is another home craft that developed into a salable commodity by the Middle Ages, the height of popularity of hand-made quilts being in the 17th-18th centuries. After this it declined into a cottage industry when mechanically produced articles were introduced. The bed quilt made of patches was the staple product, but other articles such as tea cosies, cushion covers and warm clothing were also traditional. Usually handed down from mother to daughter rather than by an

apprenticeship system, the craft has enjoyed a revival for the luxury market through the Women's Institutes, especially in Durham. Arnold (1968, 1970), and Wymer (1946) offer descriptions and a quilters index exists.

Smock making

The *smock* or *smock-frock* was the standard everyday outerwear for countrymen in the 18th- early 20th centuries. In some places it was know as a *slop*, a term also used for poor quality or secondhand clothing.

The terminology is also confused by the fact that until the 18th century a smock was a woman's linen under-garment, later called a *shift* or *chemise*. A *frock* was the name given to the full-skirted coat worn by men in the 18th century, and in the early and mid 20th century the English called a woman's dress a frock.

The countryman's smock was a long full shirt with gathering (*smocking*) on the chest and elsewhere to control the fullness but allow freedom of movement. It was made of tough linen twill or drabbet, typically beige or fawn with self-coloured embroidery, and worn over the shirt and trousers.

The garment was held in high esteem and men would have a special, beautifully embroidered one for Sunday-best. The making and embroidering of smocks was a country craft and has been described by Arnold (1970), and in more detail by Filbee and in the well-illustrated Shire book by Hall.

Staymaking

Stays, corsets made with whalebone, were a remarkable form of female torture, about which little has been written. They were in fashion from the 18th century until about 1905 varying in style with the current dress fashions (Rowland-Warne), and one finds frequent references to staymakers in the censuses.

Tailoring

Tailors made clothes for men and boys as well as riding habits for ladies and there were two kinds of employment. Outworkers were part of the 'sweated trades' who worked at home and were paid by the piece, often restricted to performing only one part of the process. These can be found as *felling hands, trouser hands, buttonholers* etc. on censuses, and would receive their work from the *foreman tailor*. This man had a shop where he took the customer's measurements, cut the cloth, parcelled out the work and arranged for the delivery of the finished garment.

Ready-made clothes would be sold in *slop shops*, some of which also sold secondhand clothing. The higher class workers were employed as *bespoke tailors* and were more likely to have served a formal apprenticeship, knew all parts of the trade and had their own business premises.

The three 19th century factors mentioned under dressmaking also applied to the tailors' trade and better quality ready-made clothing for men became more prevalent. In 1841 tailoring was London's fourth commonest occupation, after domestic service,

labouring and boot-and shoe-making, and after them came milliners and dressmakers then commercial clerks. The practical details are described by Hurley (1991-2), and Mayhew devotes a chapter to the conditions of tailors in various parts of London (Thompson & Yeo).

Earthenware

◈ Bricks

The Romans were the first to make bricks in England, much thinner than modern ones and still to be seen re-used in later church buildings. After their departure in 409 AD there was little brickmaking for a thousand years, mainly because dwellings were constructed of more readily available and inexpensive local materials like stone, flint, cob, wattle-and-daub and timber. It was after the suppression of the monasteries (1540) by Henry VIII that wealth became better distributed and more building took place. Brick was then in demand, especially in areas having little suitable stone, for larger houses, schools, and other community buildings. London has no building stone and after the Great Fire in 1666 wood was discouraged; brick that could be made locally was the cheaper alternative to importing granite or limestone from other parts of the country. Whatever the building material chimneys, which were first seen in the 16th century, were invariably lined with brick to lessen the risk of fire in wooden houses, and to prevent the erosion of stone by sulphur fumes emitted by coal fires.

Early bricks were brought from the Netherlands as ballast in the returning wool ships and mostly used in East Anglia or in port towns such as Exeter and Topsham, Devon where many such buildings survive today. The next development was Flemish brickmakers setting up their kilns in England and bringing with them their families and associated workmen such as puggers and bricklayers.

In time brickworks sprang up in all clay districts; they were fired in kilns heated by wood, and later by coal, and transported from the mid-18th century along the network of canals and in the 19th century by rail. Itinerant brickmakers frequently worked on or near building sites until enough bricks had been made for the job, and then moved on to another building site. Researchers may encounter references to the tax imposed on bricks from 1784 to 1850, coinciding with the mass movement of country folk into towns during the Industrial Revolution and the increased demand for housing by the rapidly growing population. Mechanical means of mass producing bricks started in 1858 and the small brick companies started to die out in favour of larger enterprises. Extensive brickworks in Bedfordshire and Huntingdonshire, situated on the Oxford Clay, supplied the huge markets of London, the Home Counties and the Midlands. At Fletton near Peterborough, Northamptonshire 150,000 bricks a day were being produced by the end of the 19th century. Such mass production for building, hand-in-hand with that of Welsh slate for the roofs, created those monotonous rows of Victorian artisans' houses with

their prolific chimney pots jarring the view as one approaches English cities by train.

The intricacies of the brickmaking process can be found in Hammond (2001), Hurley 1991-2 and Manners, and a history of the industry in Chaloner, Bailey 1982 and Hammond. Dixon describes one of the few remaining hand brick works existing exclusively to supply replicas of old bricks for restoration work, for example at Hampton Court, Windsor Castle and modest cottages.

Campbell-Passmore (1989) describes a search for a brickmaker ancestor who started out in Scotland, moved to the Isle of Man then South Wales before emigrating to California. Cuffley runs a brickmakers index. In his second career as a quantity surveyor (estimator) my father frequently referred to *Flemish bonding* of bricks and to a popular brick called a *sand-faced Fletton*. Now I know where these names arose.

◈ Cement

Portland cement, the most important of the building adhesives, is a mixture of powdered chalk and clay mixed with water and is the basic ingredient of concrete. It was first manufactured in the early 19th century and derives its name from the fact that it resembled a building stone quarried at Portland, Dorset. There seems to be little written about the workers, but Chaloner has a history of the industry.

◈ Clay Pipes

Tobacco came to England from the New World in the late 16th century and was at first smoked in silver pipes, then clay ones having thin stems. The 7" ones were called *cutties* and those 13" or longer were termed *churchwardens*. James I imposed heavy taxes which restricted tobacco to the wealthier ranks, and also had the effect of promoting smuggling. When these taxes were lifted in the mid-17th century the occupation of pipemaking grew to meet the rising demand, especially in coastal ports where both inland and export markets could be tapped. Late in the 18th century the taking of snuff became more popular with a consequent decline in clay pipe making, which was worsened by the introduction of cigarettes and briar pipes in the mid-19th century, and died out completely by the early 20th. Production was done in small backyard kilns by families, using particular kinds of pipe clay prevalent in south west England and other parts. Since the product was brittle plenty of broken ones were discarded and frequently surface in town gardens all over England. Pipe makers stamped their names or initials on their pipes and this occupation is one of the few that can claim personal identification of objects made by an ancestor.

Details of the industry are given by Ayto, Manners, Peter Hammond (also runs a tobacco pipe makers index) and Lewcun (also runs clay pipe makers index), and Scott & Scott have written on smoking antiques. The London Tobaccopipemakers' Company is now defunct and very few records survive, including only eight apprenticeships indexed by Webb (1998-1).

◈ Glass

Glassmaking was introduced into Britain by the Romans and in the Middle Ages was largely concentrated in the Weald of Sussex and Surrey. This area had the raw materials, sand and potash (formed from ash of beech, oak and bracken), as well as a plentiful supply of wood for fuel. The main products were window glass and simple vessels, but the quality was inferior to continental glass.

Elizabeth I encouraged the immigration of foreign glassmakers, especially window glass makers from Normandy and Lorraine in France, and Venetian fine crystal-like glass makers. They settled in the south east but in 1615 James I banned wood as a fuel for glass furnaces as the forests were being rapidly depleted. Glass makers were therefore forced to move to areas which had (or imported) coal: Stourbridge in Worcestershire, Newcastle upon Tyne, south east Scotland, London and Bristol. The English invention of lead crystal glass in 1676 paved the way for the enormous success of English glass and glass cutting in the 18th century, however excise taxes hampered the industry from 1745 to 1845. Other specialties such as bottle, plate, crown and flint glass were being produced around St. Helen's, Lancashire by the mid-19th century.

Information on the industry can be found in Bailey (1982), Dodsworth, Hey, Hurley (1991-2) and Wymer (1949). Information on specific glass products can be found as follows: *bottles & bottle collecting* (Hedges), *decanters* (Leigh), *English drinking glasses* (Bickerton), *glass blowing* (Hurley 1991-2, Wymer

1949), *looking glasses* (mirrors)(Hurley), *pressed flint glass* (Notley), scent bottles (Walker), studio glass (McLaren). There is a glassmakers' index covering glass blowers, glass cutters, glass bevellers, glass bottle makers etc. The apprenticeships for the Glass-Sellers' Company 1664-1812 have been indexed by Webb (1997-1).

◈ Pottery

The potter is one of the oldest craftsmen and a wide variety of small potteries were in production all over England long before Josiah Wedgwood revolutionized the industry in the late 18th century. Many kinds of ware were produced: terracotta, majolica-faience, slip-ware, earthenware, porcelain, bone china and stoneware. England commenced making its famous porcelain in 1730 Chelsea (London), 1744 Bow (London), 1751 Lowestoft, 1751 Worcester, 1755 Liverpool, 1757 Burslem, 1760 Plymouth, 1774 Bristol and 1780 Coalport. Bone china made by Spode commenced in 1805 (Arnold 1968).

The potter needed clay, water and a nearby supply of coal to fire the kilns. These were found abundantly in the six towns known as the Potteries in Staffordshire, (Stoke-on-Trent, Burslem, Tunstall, Hanley, Longton and Fenton), which still had about 120 small traditional works in 1829 when the seven large-scale integrated operations were active. During the 19th century other new centres started up, for example Leeds, Yorkshire.

The raw material is heavy and not easily transported so pottery works need to be sited near the supply.

Likewise, many of the finished products are large and heavy jugs, urns, baths and other containers, flower pots, chimney pots, tiles etc. Transport to distant markets only become feasible after the development of the turnpike roads and the canal system. The history of the trade is described by Sekers, Bailey (1982), Wymer (1946), Arnold (1968), Filbee, and Beech, whilst the potteries area and way of life are detailed by Morland, Sekers, and Beech.

Information about the potters craft is found in Manners, Sekers, Bailey (1982), Wymer (1946), Arnold (1968, 1970), Hurley (1991-1), and Filbee. A large number of Shire books are devoted to specific products as follows: architectural ceramics, mediaeval tiles, tiled furniture, and Victorian tiles (Van Lemmen), Aynsley china (Ashworth), bathroom ceramics and water closets (Blair), blue and white transfer-printed pottery and ceramic bygones (Copeland), ceramics of the 1950s and 1960s (McLaren), Copeland ware (Wilkinson), lustreware (Michael Gibson), Maling & other Tyneside pottery (Bell), Minton (Joan Jones), Parian ware (Barker), post-mediaeval pottery (Draper), Pratt ware (Lewis & Lewis), Royal Crown Derby (Sargeant), Royal Doulton (McKeown), tin-glazed earthenware (Black), and Wedgwood ware (Copeland).

Famous makers include Josiah Wedgwood (Tames), Minton, Spode, Royal Doulton, Copeland, Aynsley, Royal Crown Derby and Ridgway. Little has written on a genealogist's search for her potter ancestor Higginbottom who worked in the Torquay pottery.

Food & Drink

▲ Baking

The baker's primary work was the production of bread, and mixing dough was heavy work and not successfully mechanized until the 1850s. Descriptions of the bakers' trade are not hard to come by so only a few are given here. The Shire book by Muller gives a thorough history of baking and the processes used with lots of pictures. Hill (1995) relates the development of bakeries during the last two centuries, whilst brief descriptions of the trade are given by Hurley (1991-1), and Filbee who also gives details about a modern home-baked pie making franchise. The experience of military bakers provided the basis for bread factories which by 1960 provided 60% of all bread.

The baker also made a wide assortment of biscuits and cakes which were sold from his own shop, but also later mechanized and factory produced, of-course. Hudson provides perspective on 20th century biscuit making, and Dolphin reminisces about their distinctive containers.

There was an increase in the number of bakers when the large personal outside brick ovens were replaced by smaller Victorian indoor ones that couldn't hold enough loaves for the 19th century family. So far only the apprenticeships of the London Brown Bakers' Company 1615-1646 have been indexed by Webb (2000-3); it merged with the White Bakers' Company in 1646 becoming simply the Bakers' Company.

▲ Beverages

In the days before piped purified water, tuberculin-tested cows and orange juice the staple drink of the people-men, women and children was ale. The process involved heating water before the mashing, boiling the wort, and then fermentation with production of alcohol, all of which ensured that the liquid was sterile and remained so. This was all produced in the household, in local alehouses for the retail trade, and in monasteries for the use of travellers and the monks.

No doubt housewives also produced juice from wild or cultivated fruits, but its shelf life would have been short. Wines had been introduced first by the Romans and again by the Normans but as few spots in England were warm enough for growing grapes domestic production was minimal and imports were too expensive for the masses. Fruit and flower wines such as elderberry and dandelion seem to have been made only in the home. Apples and pears were used commercially for cider and perry, respectively. Cidermaking, practiced largely in the West Country, has been described by Quinion, Wymer (1946), Manners and Bailey (1982).

Brewing was therefore an important part of every village and town economy carried on not only in homes and farms but in taverns, alehouses and inns where it was often done by women, known as *alewives* or *brewsters*. The price of ale was fixed and *aletasters* or *aleconners* had to test the quality before it went on sale. Brewing of beer became established when hops were introduced from Europe about 1400, but the guilds of

ale- and beer-brewers kept themselves apart and even used different sizes of casks for their products (Lovett). The government soon recognized the revenue potential of ale and beer and it has been taxed since 1188.

Breweries as we know them only began in the 18th century and were called *common breweries*, the early ones being run by immigrants from the Low Countries, especially in London. The old processes of distilling spirits have been described Hurley (1991-2 under brewing, 1994) and Webb (1997-7) has indexed the London Distillers' Company apprenticeships from 1659-1811.

There were thousands of small brewers and a few larger ones which came to dominate the market; by the late 20th century only a half-dozen firms supply the demand. London was the main site of commercial brewing but there were other provincial ones, notably Burton-upon-Trent, Staffordshire owing to its supply of excellent water for beer. Good accounts of the history of brewing can be found in Lovett, Bailey (1982), and Hurley 1991-2. For details of the manufacturing process refer to Lovett,

The process of *malting*, whereby barley is converted into malt for the brewing of ale is found chiefly in the barley-growing areas of eastern and southeastern England, notably Suffolk, Essex and east Hertfordshire (Bailey 1982).

Some of the ancient *malt-houses* or *maltings* are still in use, and many have been converted for other purposes,

for example the East Sussex Record Office in Lewes is housed in one. The tale of one maltster or malster is recounted by Lever. *Individual brewers'* records can be found amongst the records of the Brewery History Society (Barber), and in the *victuallers licenses* and over 6,000 London Brewers' Company apprenticeships from 1531-1685 (2001-2) and 1685-1800 (1996-1) have been indexed by Webb. Some breweries, such as Courage, have good archives. They have the records of their 80 constituent companies including details of licencees, tenants' registers, deeds of public houses, photographs, company magazines and directors' minutes. Several Brewery Museums are described by Lovett. Carbonated beverages became fashionable as a corollary to visiting spas during the late 18th century and Schweppe, a German emigrant in London, sold over a million bottles of his soda water, lemonade and ginger beer at the 1851 Great Exhibition. The story of carbonated beverages is well told by Hill (1997).

▲ Confectionery & Cooking

The cultivation of sugar cane was introduced into the Caribbean in the 16th century, and sugar beets were grown in Europe from the late 18th century. Refiners of sugar were known as sugar bakers. The industry was concentrated in the east end of London and the majority of the workers were late 18*th* century to mid-19*th* century German emigrants. The Anglo-German FHS have published a detailed history of the industry.

The confectioner had a ready market for his *sweetmeats* (sweets, or candies to North American) and the ancient confectionery ingredients of milk, cream, butter, gelatine, pectin, almonds, pistachios and fruits were supplemented by new discoveries of spices, citrus fruits, rose water and liquorice. Chocolate, vanilla and pineapples arrived from the New World. Anyone with a confectioner as an ancestor should read the mouthwatering description in Hurley (1994) of the eight kinds of *confects* or *confits* (fruits, flowers, herbs, roots, and juices boiled and prepared with sugar or honey) as well as gingerbread, ice-cream and specialty cakes. Another good account is that by Mason, who discusses both the early hand making of sweets and chocolates and mechanized mass production.

Baron-Jones wrote about searching for her ancestors in the Clarnico Company and the company's history. The early records of the London Cooks' Company are kept at the Guildhall Library and Webb (1999-3) has indexed over 3,000 apprenticeships from 1654-1800.

▲ Preserving Food

There is very little written for the genealogist about those who worked in food preservation. Curing of ham was done above the fire in most homes, but also sent out to a local curer, beef and mutton being too expensive for most people (Arnold 1970). Chaloner has a chapter on the canning industry, and ice-houses are the subject of a Shire book by Buxbaum.

Instruments & Toys

Instrument making as well as the making of the more mechanical toys tended to be a town occupation. There are many books in the Shire series which relate to old instruments and toys as they are eminently collectable.

✯ Cameras

White has written on old cameras from their beginnings in 1839 until prior to WWII, and also from 1945-1965, as well as photographic accessories 1890-1970. Photographic processes and cameras have been described by Pols (1992).

✯ Entertainment

The Quennells' volumes on *Everyday Things in England* are fascinating and contain many line drawings. Instruments used in older forms of entertainment include *magic lanterns* (Greenacre), *mechanical music* (McElhone), *old gramophones & other talking machines* (Bergonzi), *old telephones* (Emmerson), *old radio sets* (Hill), and *old television* (Emmerson).

✯ Musical Instruments

Hurley (1994) has a general article on the making of musical instruments, and Weir describes the equipment and prices of instruments for village and town bands. Museums of music and bodies such as the Royal College of Music should be able to help with specific manufacturers.

Information on specific instruments can be found as follows: *bagpipes* (Arnold 1968), *bells and bellfounding* (John Camp, Jennings), *drums* (Hurley 1994), *handbells* (Jennings), *harps* (Wymer 1949), *organs* (Hurley 1994, Wymer 1949), *pianofortes* (Froud, Hurley 1994, Wymer 1949), *violins* (Hurley 1994, Wymer 1949), *whistles* (Gilchrist), and *wind instruments* (Hurley 1994, Wymer 1949).

✯ Optical & Scientific Instruments

When a new industry or profession developed during the course of history it invariably opened up an entirely new field of craftmanship to provide the tools it required (Wymer 1949). Thus, when England became a maritime power in the Middle Ages the *scientific* (a.k.a. *mathematical) instrument maker* appeared on the scene to provide the tools for navigation. To begin with the scientists made their own instrument, devising and constructing each one as needed. Early inventions were the backstaff for measuring latitude by Davys in 1540, the theodolitus by Digges in 1571, the micrometer by Gascoigne in 1640, telescopes by Newton and Herschel, and the microscope by Hooke. By the mid-17th century Charles II established the Royal Society to bring together scientists who had hitherto worked alone, and from that time onwards England became an important centre of scientific activity.

The scientists came to work more exclusively on their experiments and relied more and more on specialized instrument makers to fashion their equipment for them. In time the makers also became inventors of new products thus synergizing science, an example being the

1733 discovery of how to make optical glass by the amateur Hall. He communicated his ideas to a fellow of the *Royal Society*, Dolland, who advanced it further and founded the famous firm of optical instrument makers. Wymer relates the early history of scientific instrument makers, whilst McConnell deals solely with barometers. The making of telescopes, microscopes and other optical instruments has been described by Hurley (1994), and there is a Scientific Instrument Manufacturers Association of Great Britain. Warren has a fascinating book on old medical & dental instruments.

✯ Toys

Dolls, and toy soldiers operated by strings were sold at St. Bartholomew's Fair as early as 1133 (Quennell & Quennell), and dolls were still being referred to as *bartholomew babies* in the early 20th century. Other early toys were drums and trumpets, hobby horses, popguns with clay pellets, kites, and model lambs.

Dolls have been children's toys from time immemorial, and their sale as a source of income began well before the 16th century, the date of the earliest pictures of English children playing with dolls.

Dolls have been constructed of wood, wax, clay, china, bisque or plastics, then painted and dressed in the fashionable style of the time and may have had realistic hair, thus a variety of skills were needed in their construction.
Dolls have been manufactured on a large scale from about 1700, often as a cottage industry in England, but

from the mid-19th century also using industrial methods. Sadly, it is only possible to attribute a doll to a particular maker from about 1840 when makers started to mark their wares. Goodfellow has a great Shire book on the trade, whilst dolls' houses and dolls' house furniture are discussed by Pasierbska.

Toy animals have always been popular and Wymer (1946) describes a New Forest firm producing *hand-carved wooden horses*, *coaches* etc. *Rocking horses* are the subject of a Shire book by Bottomley, whilst Cockrill writes on *teddy bears & soft toys*. General sources on toy making by Schroeder are supplemented by those on *children's cars* by Pennell, *constructional toys* by Harley, *dinky* toys by Cooke, *toy steam accessories* by Rooks, *toy steam engines* by Gordon, and *toy trains* by Salisbury.

The Bethnal Green Museum of Childhood, a branch of the Victoria and Albert Museum, has a good collection and acts as a reference source. Mayhew devoted a chapter to toymakers and their lives (Thompson & Yeo).

It should be noted that in the West Midlands, one of the major areas for metal manufacture, the term toys originally referred to small metal fancy goods from the early 18th century. There were 30 toymakers in Birmingham in the 1750s with 67 apprentices between them (Hey).

✯ Writing Instruments

Those who made pens were termed *quill dressers* who would be part of the Stationers' Company. Inkstands would not only include a container for ink, but also one for *wafers* used to make seals, and another for *ponce*, a fine powder used to prevent ink from spreading on unsized paper. The production of hand-made graphite pencils is described by Bailey (1982) and Harris has written on portable writing desks.

Machinery, Guns & Munitions

→ Guns & Munitions

Portable fire-arms or *small arms* were invented at the beginning of the 16th century in the form of the *musket*, with later developments of the *pistol*, *calivres* and *carabines*, the gunsmith replacing the fletcher by this time. The early trade is well described by Hurley (1994) the 19th century trade by Wymer (1949), whilst Cook's article covers both and has a list of references. The trade was concentrated in the Midlands iron and coal area, the gunsmiths at Small Heath had their own quarter of the town where all parts of the guns were made-lock, stock and barrel. The famous Birmingham Small Arms factory started here (Bailey 1982), whilst Enfield, Middlesex housed the government small arms factory and built the Enfield rifle.

Indexes of gunsmiths can be found in Anonymous (2001), and Brackmore and Cook lists others. The Gunmakers' Company was founded in 1637 and its records are at the Guildhall Library. Webb (1997-4) has indexed over 1,800 of their apprenticeships from

1656-1800 but the records cover the period up to 1902. An index of gunmakers and allied trades is run by Cook.

Munitions workers have received attention in journals close to major factories, for example in Woolwich and Dartford, Kent. The staff of the Vickers works at Dartford in 1918 are pictured by Connon. Ludlow has two good articles on the Woolwich Arsenal and its women workers, the first on the early history (2002-1), the second from WWI until its closure in 1867 (2002-2). Most of the site has been cleared and used for housing, commerce and leisure activities, but the Royal Artillery Museum, the Greenwich Borough Museum and Local History Library will move there in 2003.

→ Machinery

In remoter periods the common smith, the founder and the carpenter were the main producers of tools and aids to man's useful activities. The article written on the *machinist* in 1818 (Hurley 1994) describes the major inventions to that time from the early concept of the steam engine in 1663 up to Watt's perfecting of it in 1762, with a long list of others conceived in the Industrial Revolutionary period of the previous 50 years. The benefits to us seem obvious but the thousands of labourers put out of work by machines did not view them with enthusiasm. The early 19th century was marked by the activities of the machine-breaking Luddites and agricultural machine objectors involved in the Riots of 1830-31 (Chambers, Hey).

Family history is served well by a number of good Shire books on machinery: *Bonnett's Farming with steam*, Cawood's *Vintage tractors,* Smith's *Discovering horse-drawn farm machinery*, Rayner's Road rollers, *and Traction engines & other steam road engines*, Benson's *Textile machines*, Manktelow's *Steam shovels*, Hayes' *Stationary steam engines*, Dean's *Industrial narrow gauge railways*, Cockman's *British Railways' steam locomotives* and a biography of the railway & steamship engineer *Isambard Kingdon Brunel* by Tames. Those interested in aircraft factories will appreciate the chapter in Hudson.

Metals

➢ Bell founding

The first bells to be made in England was a peal of seven at Crowland Abbey in Lincolnshire in the early 8th century. The work was carried out initially by monks who travelled around from church to church casting bells in their portable furnace. As demand increased they set up permanent foundries in London (Taylor 1954), Loughborough, Gloucester, Salisbury, Bury St. Edmunds, Norwich, Colchester, Burford, Nottingham, Reading, and Croydon (Wymer 1949, Jennings). All these places are in the southern half of England but only the centres in London and Loughborough remain active.

The metal used for the best bells is an alloy of copper and tin in the ratio of about 4:1. Descriptions of the process are given by Wymer (1949), Bailey (1982), and in the most detail by Jennings who gives more history and illustrations. Inscriptions on bells are noted by

Ketteringham. This town craft was often combined with that of brazier or potter, and bells were cast in bell-moulds in pits next to a reverberating furnace. When a bell was recast the bell founder often did this in a pit sunk into the nave of the church, hence the references to repairs to church floors in churchwardens accounts after such work on the bells.

➢ Blacksmiths

The blacksmith manufactures a great variety of useful and decorative articles from iron, and a village smithy would have seen a bit of every part of the trade. Town smithies may have specialized in farriery, household and farm implements, or wrought iron work. Gradually, during the 19th-20th centuries, specialist firms took over the manufacture of agricultural tools and machinery so the smith was left with repair work on domestic and farm items, and ornamental iron work for gates, railings, balconies etc. as well as farriery if he did this as well. In the early 20th century some became the first auto mechanics, growing with the new machines. The country blacksmith-cum-farrier was the one epitomized by Longfellow:

> *Under a spreading chestnut tree*
> *The village smithy stands;*
> *The smith, a mighty man is he,*
> *With large and sinewy hands;*
> *And the muscles of his brawny arms*
> *Are strong as iron bands.*

Descriptions of the blacksmith's work are not hard to find, some of the better ones are in Hurley (1991-1),

Maurin (1992), Marcia Evans and Jocelyn Bailey's well-illustrated Shire book. The history and romantic legends associated with smithies can be found in Wymer 1946, Filbee, and Marcia Evans, whilst wrought iron work is described by Manners, Arnold 1970, Hayman, and Filbee.

➢ Brass, Bronze & Copper

Brass is an alloy of copper with zinc, and most was imported before the establishment of a mill in Bristol in 1702 (Hey). Brass has been used for the manufacture of a number of disparate articles including decorated brass guns, monumental brasses, brass musical instruments, horse brasses (see Vince), kettles, pails, candlesticks and other household utensils, and the best pins are made of brass wire. Some of these articles are made by beating with a hammer and then uniting separate parts with solder; others are cast in moulds, then polished and finished by the brazier. Copper alloyed with tin is called *bronze* or *bell metal*. *Copper* is used by itself to make coppers, boilers and other large vessels for brewers, distillers and household use; any vessel used for food preparation needs to be well tinned on the inside to prevent copper poisoning. Hurley (1991-2) and Eveleigh present the history and descriptions of the brazier's art. Santaana runs an index of brassworkers including brass fitters, dressers, founders, bit filers, hame-makers, polishers, harness dressers etc. The apprenticeships of the Armourers and Brasiers' Company c1610-1800 have been indexed (Webb 1998-11).

➢ Coins

Coins have been made in England since at least 100 BC (Cooper). Coiners would cast buttons of metal, hammer them flat to form blanks on which a design would also be hammered thus forming a coin. Metals used included iron, copper, gold and silver and alloys of these. Higher value coins were made of silver and gold, and as the coins were worth more than the actual weight of precious metal the *moneyer* made a substantial income. The phrase *worth his weight in gold* was originally applied to a good moneyer. Anglo-Saxon coins bore the moneyer's identifying mark and mints started to be regulated during Alfred the Great's reign (871-901). Manufacturing methods improved and the first coining machines were operating in Europe by about 1500, with the methods depicted by Cooper. There was a great shortage of low value bronze coins during the 17th-18th century and privately issued trade tokens were widely abused by traders who only supplied goods for half the face value. This troubled manufacturer Matthew Boulton who was able to get a 1797 government contract to mint large copper coins each made from a pennyworth of copper. The contract was large enough for him to invest in one of Watt's new steam engines to power his automatic press. Much further development of machinery and metals ensued, with post WWII coins being only tokens, in that they do not contain their face value in metal. Cooper is an excellent introduction to minting coins, whilst Munby, and Chapman (1995) discuss the actual coinage in use and its value. Staff records of the Royal Mint are at the Public Record Office (see List & Index Society). White (1989) tells about coin fakers.

➢ Cutlery

The cutler made knives and other cutting instruments such as scissors, razors, skates, swords, sickles, scythes, awl blades, files, scalpels and lancets, as well as forks and spoons. In London cutlery was established as a separate trade from blacksmithing by the 12th century and a Cutlers' Company was formed in the 13th. The apprenticeships from 1442-1448 and 1565-1800 have been indexed (Webb 2001-1). Other early centres of the cutlery trade were in Thaxted, Essex; Ferry Fryston near Pontefract, West Yorkshire; Leicester; Ashbourne, Derbyshire; Salisbury; York; and Birmingham. Birmingham was noted for swords, and Salisbury for scissors and spring knives, and these outlasted the other centres. Sheffield is first mentioned in the mid-14th century, the Cutlers' Company of Hallamshire was founded there is 1624 (Hey), and by the 1770s Sheffield had over 150 workshops (Smithurst). Sheffield completely dominated the cutlery industry by the 19th century because of its access to superior local grindstones and water power.

The wealthy cutlery masters and factors eventually usurped the power of the Cutlers' own regulatory company and conditions for the workmen deteriorated. To protect themselves the craftsmen formed early trade societies in the later 18th century, long before trade unions became legal in 1871. Smithurst recounts some of their battles with management, among which were the dreadful hazards. One was from bursting grindstones, but more prevalent was silicosis which resulted in most grinders dying before the age of 30, until the extraction fan became compulsory in 1867.

Descriptions of the processes used in cutlery can be found in Hurley (1991-2), Smithurst, Walmsley (scythes) and Wedge (pocket knives). Moore has written Shire books on *spoons; table knives & forks*; and *penknives & other folding knives*. Saunders tells of her cutler ancestors, one of whom advertised his business in Piccadilly, London as *surgeon instrument maker and cutler, table knife, wild board spear & hunting knife & tailor's shears maker*.

➢ Farriers

The farrier (*pedolwar* in Welsh) was originally a blacksmith who specialized in making and fitting shoes for horses and oxen, but because of his knowledge of the animal and the health of its all-important feet and legs, he developed into an early veterinarian. Before the railway and the combustion engine the horse was central to the economy of town and country, and cavalry NCO farriers were much in demand in WWI. As late as the mid-20th century horses were still common hauling delivery vehicles and thousands of pit ponies worked in the mines. Horses were brought to the local rural blacksmith-cum-farrier, but there was also the full-time rural farrier at the wayside inns on coaching routes whose reputation impacted on the success of the inn itself. The town farrier worked in a far less idyllic scene in more cramped and noisy stables and alleyways.

The vast numbers of people in various occupations associated with horses were described by Vickers (1996), and Davies gives further details on town and village farriers and their veterinary skills. Descriptions of the horse shoeing process are given in Bailey (1977),

Manners, Arnold (1968), and Dixon, and Sparkes has written on old horseshoes. There was a Guild of Farriers in the City of London as early as 1356 which became the Worshipful Company of Farriers in 1674, and the apprenticeships 1619-1800 have been indexed (Webb 1999-5). The apprenticeship scheme continues under the Farriers Registration Council (Bailey 1977).

➢ Gold & Silver

Since 1300 England has required all except very tiny silver and gold articles to be hallmarked, that is, to be submitted for assay of the quality of the metal and have an appropriate stamp applied.

There are actually four marks indicating by letters and pictures the maker, quality, assay office and the date, and a fifth used to indicate tax had been paid when that was required. Ferguson wrote an introductory article on the subject and mentions the standard works for identification of gold and silver hallmarks (Pickford), and for London hallmarks (Grimwade). There is also a nice Shire book on the subject by Bly.

➢ Goldsmiths

The wealthy have always enjoyed the craftmanship displayed in gold jewellery and household goods and ornaments. The Goldsmiths' Company, founded in 1667, was one of the *great twelve*. Culme produced short biographies of goldsmiths in the London Assay Office registers 1838-1914.

➢ Gold beaters

Gold leaf hammered to a thickness of 1/240,000", is used to decorate everything from books to church steeples. The gilding of wood, leather, paper and similar materials is done by using some form of glue or cement with the gold leaf. Metals are gilt by a chemical application of the gold to the surface (Hurley 1991-1).

➢ Gold & Silver Wire Drawers

The drawing of metal through a steel plate perforated with tiny holes to make wire has been carried out since the 14th century. Silver wire and gold wire are both formed of silver, the latter being covered with gold. This is done by double gilding a silver ingot and then drawing it out, when the surface will be equally covered in gold. There are also counterfeit gold and silver wires made of copper which has been silvered or gilt. Hurley (1991-2) provides further details of the process. Gold and Silver Wyre Drawers' Company apprenticeships 1693-1837 have been indexed (Webb 1998-4).

➢ Silversmiths

English silver has a long history going back to at least the Anglo-Saxons, which is perhaps surprising as all of the metal had to be imported. In the days before the banking system silver was a useful investment with finer pieces appreciating in value, with churches and wealthier households being the main customers. The arrival of French refugees at the end of the 17th century brought a welcome influx of design and craftmanship, and at the same time came another impetus. The introduction of tea, coffee and drinking chocolate created a demand for tea services, coffee pots, trays etc.

which to be elegant had to be in silver. The details of the craft are discussed by Wymer (1949) and a modern silversmith is featured by Dixon. Culme produced short biographies of silversmiths in the London Assay Office registers 1838-1914.

Silversmiths were included in the Goldsmiths' Company. Bambery has written on old *Sheffield Plate*, a bimetal of silver and copper sheets.

➢ Iron & Steel

Iron Age man surface-mined iron ore and smelted it on hilltops where a good wind was available to supply air to the furnace. The liquid iron was allowed to solidify as a bar known as a *bloom* that the smith used in his forge to make various articles. This is *wrought iron* which has a fibrous structure and high tensile strength so can be shaped by hammering, squeezing and rolling.

This process was improved during the Middle Ages and until the 17th century water-powered *bloomeries* were important in the Weald of Surrey, Sussex and Kent. The area contained iron ore, was heavily forested, and had small coal deposits—an ideal combination for the rapid growth of the iron industry. The *hammer ponds* which stored the water to run the forges can still be found, especially in Sussex, There was an increased demand for iron for building, agriculture, shipping and the arms trades during the 16*th* and 17*th* centuries.

This was facilitated by a gradual changeover to the production of *cast iron* in charcoal-fired *blast furnaces*, using water power to work the bellows supplying the air for combustion (Burgess).

This technique was introduced from France in 1496 to the Ashdown Forest, an area in north mid-Sussex which is part of the Weald. The first English metal cannon was made here in 1543 and the region was of immense importance to Henry VIII and Elizabeth I being so close to the capital. However the forests were not replanted, and the iron ore and coal were depleted.

From the 1560s the industry started to shift to the midlands and the north of England, and by the 1630s production there had eclipsed that in the Weald. Staffordshire was a major site as were Barrow-in-Furness, north Lancashire, Sheffield in the West Riding of Yorkshire and Middlesbrough in the North Riding. The South Wales industry developed during the 17th century with rapid expansion from 1790-1840 when there was much in-migration, especially from Devon and Somerset.

Cast iron is a crystalline alloy of iron with about 5% carbon, has relatively low tensile strength so cannot be shaped by hammer, but can be melted and poured into a mould. The initial poured moulds resemble a litter of pigs around a sow thus these bars were called *pig iron*. At first much of the cast iron was converted to wrought iron by hammering with water-powered *tilt hammers* especially around Sheffield and other areas of Yorkshire.

Slitting mills produced *rod iron* that was used for nails and wire. Coke was introduced in 1709 in Shropshire and the *puddling* process in the late 18th century; steam-powered hammers came in 1839. Advances in the design of blast furnaces around 1830 doubled the production and ushered in the 19th century boom period for iron and steel..

Steel is the most versatile form of iron and the most widely used today. Chemically it can take a variety of forms involving several elements in addition to iron. Small quantities were being made by 1811 (Hurley 1991-2) but in 1856 the *Bessemer process* allowed bulk production of steel. The Northamptonshire iron deposits were discovered in 1879 and a huge steel industry developed around the little villages of Corby and Weldon, importing large numbers of Scottish workers during the 1930s, but by the 1980s the bubble had burst.

The history of the British iron and steel industry is summarized by Hey, Bailey (1982), Gale, Tyler and Hurley (1991-2). Chaloner has chapters on the ironmaster Wilkinson and Bessemer's importance in the steel industry. More specific sources include Fearn on *cast iron*, Upham on *anchors*, and Munday on *cannon*. The Armourers Company was founded in 1322 and the apprenticeships c1610-1800 have been indexed by Webb (1998-11) who has also indexed the those of the Founders Company 1643-1800 (1998-10) although the company dates from at least the 14th century.

➢ Lead & Plumbing

Lead has been smelted in Britain for over 2,000 years, and was formerly widely used for pipes, cisterns, gutters, roofing, shot, household containers, ornaments, baths, coffins, in paint (red lead and white lead) and face powders. Willies notes that Germans (called *Dutchmen* at the time) brought new techniques during Elizabeth I's reign and at first much was exported as the metal or as red and white lead. The great age for lead was during the 18th-19th centuries and manufacturing from lead expanded near the mines, as well as near the ports of Bristol, London, Liverpool, Chester, Hull and Newcastle from 1830 when cheaper lead started to be imported. The poisonous properties were known in the 19th century but it still continued to be used for example in paints and waterproofing, to whiten bread, and to sweeten wine until the 1870s. Many new uses were found in glass and pottery production, telegraph and electricity cables and batteries, and in petrol (gasoline).

Plumbing ancestors did not just work with water and waste pipes, as they do today. They actually cast and worked the metal, making all of the household items listed above from either sheet or pipe lead. The business was often combined with that of glazier and painter. The injurious nature of lead fumes were known even by 1811 (Hurley 1991-1). Webb (2000-4) has indexed the apprenticeships of the Plumbers' Company 1571-1800, and Sutton-Gould has written on *decorative leadwork*. Another use of lead was in *typefounding*, as the metal used is a blend of lead and antimony, and this trade is described by Hurley (1991-1)

➢ Pewter & White Metal

The alloy called pewter has the soft metal tin as its major ingredient with small percentages of copper, bismuth, antimony or lead as a hardening agent. Charles Hull lists several dozen everyday articles that were once made of pewter, including household items from plates and candlesticks to babies' bottles and chamber pots. Pewter was used in churches for organ pipes, wine flagons and chalices; surgeons had pewter syringes and bleeding bowls; pilgrims wore pewter badges; and merchants traded pewter tokens. The Worshipful Company of Pewterers, founded in 1474 laid down the grades of pewter:

- *Fine metal* consisted of tin with 1-2% copper for *flatware*, or *sadware* as it was then called (plates and dishes).
- *Trifling metal* or *trifle* made of tin with 4% lead for *holloware* (bowls, basins & drinking vessels).
- *Lay* or *ley metal* was tin with about 15% lead for items which were not used for food or drink.

Modifications have been made over time with less lead and with additions of bismuth and antimony. The major early centres for production were London, York, Bristol and Coventry but since the craft was so prevalent most market towns would have had at least one pewterer. They were required to strike their mark on their wares and larger centres such as London would keep a *touchplate* at Pewterers' Hall with samples of all the marks (Hull). 5,000 of these are recorded in Cotterell's book on pewterers and their marks. The influx of Huguenot craftsmen in the late 17th century benefitted the trade. Wigan later replaced York as a centre, and a

new one in Bewdley, Worcestershire rapidly rose to become the leading centre. Contrary to popular notion a *whitesmith* is not a worker in tin, but in *white metal*, a rival to pewter. It was a soft tin alloy containing tin, antimony and copper in the ratio 50:3:1 and was introduced in 1769 and renamed *Britannia Metal* in 1797. Sheffield and Birmingham were its leading manufacturers. Another alloy called *Titania* composed of brass, antimony and tin in the ratio 8:32:7 was patented in 1770 (Harry). Good starting points for research are Hull, and Hurley (1994).

➢ Small Metal Goods

Many of the smaller metal goods were made by women and children in small workshops around Birmingham, Worcester and Sheffield. Other sites included London and a cottage industry around Christchurch, Dorset for making fusée chains for watch movements. These were sweated trades with *outworkers* on piecework for an *undertaker*, which in this case meant a small employer. He received his materials from a larger manufacturer and undertook to get it worked up by the outworkers. This system was well developed in the Midlands by the early 18th century and items like bits, stirrups, buckles, chains, locks, nails, screws, nuts, bolts, wire, pins and needles were all constructed in this way (Filbee). The work was filthy and hard and the workers have been referred to as the 'white slaves of England' (Filbee, Carol Moore). Descriptions of the work can be found in Filbee (*chains, pins, nails*), Wymer (1949 *chains*), Joy Collins (*locks*), Hurley (1991-2 *needles, pins, copper and iron wire*), Carol Moore (*nails*), Keen (*pins*), and Hey (*iron and brass wire*). The apprenticeships for

various relevant companies survive and have been indexed by Webb, for example:

- Loriners Company (who made bits, stirrups and spurs) 1722-1731 and 1759-1800 (1998-3). Note that there were also *Spurriers*, who made and sold spurs, but they joined the Blacksmiths' Company.
- Needlemakers Company 1664-1801 (1997-5).
- Pinmakers Company 1691-1723 (1997-5).

Only those who ran their own businesses are likely to have apprenticed, but there are some girl apprentices.

➢ Tin

Tin has been used in its pure form and also in alloys like bronze and pewter, and an amalgam of tin and mercury is used to cover the back surface of mirrors. Tin is especially useful for lining cooking utensils to prevent corrosion from acid foods, usually as tinplate, which is sheet iron coated with tin. The latter was first made in England in 1681 Hurley (1991-2), and by the 1720s in south Wales (Hey). The tin plate worker received it as sheets and from this made articles such as kettles, saucepans, jelly and pudding moulds, canisters, milk pails, lanthorns (lamps and lanterns) and so forth using shears, hammers and solder. Tin plate formed the basis for the 20th century canning industry. Some history and the business of the tin plate worker is given by Hurley (1991-2). The Tinplateworkers' Company apprenticeships 1666, 1668, 1676, 1681, 1683-1800 have been indexed by Webb (1998-5), and the reader should note that a missing paragraph of the introduction to this volume appears in Volume 17.

Paper, Printing & Bookbinding

The production of books was greatly facilitated after William Caxton set up his first wooden printing press in Westminster in 1476. All those taking part in producing books, including parchment and paper-makers, quill-dressers, illuminators, engravers and binders, as well as those who sold them, were called *stationers* because they set up vending stalls or *stations* in the area of St. Paul's in the City of London.

They formed the powerful Stationers Company in 1556 but were still under the rule of the church in regard to book pricing, appointment of typefounders and disallowing anything smacking of heresy.

Stationers prospered as long as they toed the church's line, and all went well until in 1632 a careless printer omitted the word not from the Seventh Commandment in a new edition of the bible, thereby making it read *Thou Shalt Commit Adultery*. Archbishop Laud was furious and even took the matter to the Star Chamber, but the fuss blew over with a heavy fine for the printer, and the Stationers Company still survives today, see Public Record Office leaflet D45.

The Stationers' Company has its own archive and just off Fleet Street the St. Bride Printing Library has records from 1554-1920 and is the most extensive national source on printing techniques, the printing trade, directories of printers etc. (Green). They have indexes of the Stationers' Company Registers up to 1800 with actual registers on microfilm. Directories of

book trades craftspeople include Maxted, Plomer, Brown, Duff, Todd, Ramsden, and Pendred. The one part of the paper trade not in the Stationers' Company, the Makers of Playing Cards' Company 1675-1760 have been indexed (Webb 1998-1).

🕮 Bookbinding

Bookbinding comprises:

- Folding, flattening and sewing the sheets of paper or parchment, which is often the specialty of women book folders and sewers.
- Gluing the backs and rounding the spine.
- Trimming and maybe gilding or otherwise decorating the edges of the pages.
- Adding the headband; adding pasteboard covers covering them with cloth, calf-skin or other material.
- Pasting in the end-papers, which could be plain or specially-made fancy marbled designs.
- Lettering and decoration of the outsides (Hurley 1991-2, Wymer 1949).

The trade was one carried out by hand in towns and cities until the 18th century when machines started to automate the mass market work. Most 20th century books are cloth-covered by machine but there are still hand binders working in studios scattered all over the country catering to the luxury and conservation trade. My brother, John Gardner, has written on his experiences as an apprentice bookbinder and included a number of good illustrations of the craft.

🕮 Paper & Parchment

Parchment is made from treated skins of sheep and goats and in the Middle Ages its making was an integral part of the tannery in a sheep-rearing district. Vellum is a fine parchment made from the treated skins of young calves and goats.

The skins are split with a sharp knife, with the upper part becoming parchment and the lower converted into chamois leather for glove-making and other uses (Wymer 1949). The production of parchment declined from the 17th century, it being used only for superior products such as certificates, lampshades and book binding, with vellum for deeds.

Paper has been made by hand since the 1490s, with watermills providing the power for beating the constituents—wood pulp, woollen rags, old ropes, paper waste, linen and cotton rags. Little was produced until the end of the 17th century when French immigrants brought technical improvements (Hey).

Water power was used until well into the 19th century but as the demand for paper for writing, printing, wrapping and other uses increased some corn and other mills were converted to this use.

Handmade paper is still used for better quality applications such as fine notepaper, bank notes, wallpaper, drawing and ledger paper (Wymer 1949).

The process involves:

- Sorting the rags and removing buttons and other unwanted items, a job usually done by women *ragpickers*.
- Mixing and beating the ingredients in water for up to 36 hours in a succession of vats to emerge as a thick, milky pulp.
- The *vatman* dips his square sieve mould into the pulp and skillfully extricates an even layer.
- The *coucher* adds this to a layer of felt, then adds another felt to sandwich it, then another paper layer until a pile, or post, sufficient to press is formed.
- The water is expressed and the sheets then proceed through the mill to be layered and sized and emerge as fine paper.

Details on methodology are given by Wymer (1949), Stirk and Hurley (1991-2). Mechanization in huge mills was a feature of the 19s-20s paper being produced in a continuous web, with huge rolls shipped to printers and other customers. Chaloner, Brennan, and Stirk give histories of the modern industry. Paper has been made in every county of England except tiny Rutland, wherever there was a supply of the water and power necessary for the process close to a city to ensure a good supply of old clothes and manufacturers' waste material. The paper-making trade concentrated around London as the newspaper business flourished in the 19s-20s. Hand paper makers suffered when the industry was mechanized and a tramping system operated to spread out the work. This is described by Stirk who also runs an index of papermakers.

🕮 Printing

At first printing was done with wood blocks, each one suitable for just one purpose, and the printing of textiles continued in this way until the mid-20th century.

The mid-15th century invention of the printing press using movable type meant that the letters could be re-used. A group of new crafts evolved for letter-press printing:

- *Typefounders* who cast the individual letters, called types, made of a blend of the metals lead and antimony, as described by Hurley (1991-1) and (Wymer 1949)

- *Compositors* arranged the letters in a frame known as a form ready for printing (Wymer 1949, Hudson 1996).

- *Printers* or *pressmen* spread the ink, a mixture of oil and lamp black, evenly over the form then applied this to each sheet of paper in turn (Wymer 1949, Hudson 1996). The printing was therefore done from raised surfaces.

Printing from engraved metal plates also dates from the 15th century, being used mainly for pictorial work with copper plates fixed in a rolling press (Hurley 1991-2).

- *Engravers* used various tools to scratch pictures on copper plates (Wymer 1949, Hudson 1996).

- *Copper Plate Printers* used the engraved copper plates to print the pictures (Hudson 1996).

Related techniques were *etching* and *aquatinting*, and *steel engraving*. In *lithography* a design is drawn with a waxy ink or crayon on stone, then the stone is sponged with water which moistens only the non-design areas.

Printing is achieved by rolling with an ink which is repelled by dampness so it adheres only to the waxy design. *Litho* was primarily an art medium so is used where elegance is sought.

London is the printing capital of Britain, but it is an important trade in several other towns and cities as well. In 1814 *The Times* set up the first steam-powered printing machine in Fleet Street, which heralded the demise of the hand press, and was later overtaken by gas and electricity.

There was significant growth in the printing trade during the 18th century so that by 1800 every market town had its own printer. He would print all kinds of notices, stationery, guidebooks and the local newspaper and retail these as well as writing paper, ink, pens and books from one shop. He may also have sold a wider selection including cheeses, tea and medicines and acted as a theatre or stage coach agent.

Establishments varied in size from the minimum it took to work a press, (two—a master and journeyman), up to the London firms which employed 60 compositors and 40 pressmen.

The 19th century brought the spread of literacy, improved transport and abolition of the newspaper tax in 1855, and these lead to greater demand for the trade which in turn encouraged specialization. The printing trade had divided into three parts by about 1860, *book printing, newspaper printing*, and *jobbing printers* who turned out what is now referred to as *ephemera*, the short-lived single-sheet items such as playbills, posters and leaflets.

Bailey (1982) and Wymer give some early history of printing and Lazell, and Hudson (1996) delve more deeply into the later developments. Marriott wrote about The *British Printer*, a trade magazine founded in 1888 and still going strong, that has much information on printer ancestors, and Pullen has investigated the gems in the Print Room of the British Museum. Hudson (1980-1) devotes a chapter to the printing of early 20th century newspaper and magazines.

Ship & Boat Building

A boat is defined as a small open, oared or sailing vessel, fishing vessel, mail packet, or small steamer.

A ship was formerly a vessel with a bowsprit (the spar extending forward over the ship's bow to which the forestays are fastened) and three to five square-rigged masts, but now means any sea-going vessel of considerable size.

History of industry

People living on islands develop a dependency on boats and ships for the transport of people and goods, intra- and international trade, and for defence. Vessels have been built in coastal and riverine areas for thousands of years, and Britain's first navy was created by Alfred the Great who reigned 871-901 AD.

The Tudor monarchs constructed warships with oak timbers and iron cannons from the Weald. The 18th-19th centuries saw the heyday of the wooden merchant ships of the East India Company and others trading worldwide.

As the technology changed to steam power and then to iron and steel construction the industry moved north to Liverpool, Teesside, Clydesdale in Scotland, and Belfast in Northern Ireland although London remained a major centre for building, repairs, and goods (freight) and passenger service.

The first steamship was Brunel's *Great Western* (1838) and the first iron ship was his *Great Britain* (1843) both built in Bristol.

The manufacture of warships provided major employment in shipyards during the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Britain constructed 60% of the world's shipping in the decade before WWI, however this fell to 35% by the late 1930s, and by 1970 it was negligible (Hey).

Sites - Merchant & Navy

The wooden sailing ships of the 16th-19th centuries were built mainly in the south of England, especially in:

- The six major *Royal Dockyards* at Deptford, Woolwich, Sheerness and Chatham (all in Kent), Plymouth (Devon) and Portsmouth (Hampshire) and several smaller ones around the coast.

- The *merchant ports* of Bristol (Gloucestershire), Harwich (Essex), London, Poole (Dorset) and Southampton (Hampshire).

Boat building was widespread all around the coasts of Britain but particularly in Hampshire, the West Country and East Anglia. Little yards and workshops abounded on tiny waterways and coves (Wymer 1946) producing everything from rowing boats and yachts to fishing smacks. Bailey recounts the history of boat and ship building in Hampshire, from the many small ports to Portsmouth, a Royal Navy city where Henry VII built the world's first dry dock in which *HMS Victory* is now moored, and Southampton which has catered to crusaders, Puritans, tourists and oil tankers.

Naval dockyards along the River Medway in Kent and especially those in Chatham, Rochester and Sheerness have been important employers for hundreds of years and their history is described by Bailey (1982). He also summarizes the history of the Bristol docks and those along the River Clyde from Govan in Glasgow west to Port Glasgow and Greenock in Scotland.

Family historians should note that the Royal Navy also had yards overseas, for example:

- Gibraltar, Port Mahon (Minorca) and Malta in the Mediterranean.
- Port Royal (Jamaica), English Harbour (Antigua) and Barbados in the West Indies.
- Halifax (Nova Scotia, Canada).

A period of employment in one of these could account for a mysterious disappearance from English records.

The first proper dock in Britain was built in 1700 at Rotherhithe in London, and this city had the largest docking system in the world in the 19th century.

The West India Dock, opened in 1802, accommodated 600 ships, and this was followed by the London Docks, East India Docks and St. Katherine's Docks. The docks in Liverpool, Bristol, Hull and Glasgow increased during the railway era, with Liverpool eventually having eight miles of dock frontage.

These were the major sites for work in ship construction and repairs during the 19th and early 20th centuries, although dozens of other ports had minor facilities. A well illustrated history of commercial docks has been written by Ritchie-Noakes, and one on the Royal Dockyards by MacDougall.

Trades in Ship & Boat Building

The shipwrights were a recognized London brotherhood as far back as 1260. Senior Royal Navy shipwrights were allowed up to five apprentices and these were called *servants* (Woodger). The apprentice bindings for 1691-1801 are at the Guildhall Library. A journeyman shipwright could choose to work for a specific project in a higher paying private yard, or in the lower paying Royal Naval yard where there was always work, and after 1764 the possibility of a pension. Spiller describes the categories of shipwrights and their pay and conditions.

The shipwright not only constructed boats and ships but was employed on board to maintain the hull and masts. The majority of ship's carpenters qualified as shipwrights in one of the dockyards before going to sea, but a boy could serve an apprenticeship afloat as *carpenter's crew* and *carpenter's mate*. In the navy, shipwrights were warrant officers called carpenters until 1918 when they were renamed *warrant shipwrights*. Some carpenters spent part of their career as civilian employees, and after some years experience as a journeyman either on board or on shore they could advance to take a *master shipwright* position.

Further information on Royal Navy shipwrights and surviving records for them, for example the pay books for the major yards in class ADM 42, can be found in Rodger. Various records of the Shipwrights' Company 1428-1858 have been published by Phillimore (Spiller).

Building of the ancient Welsh coracle is described by Wymer (1946), and in more detail by Arnold (1968,1970). Basic construction of a wooden boat by Wymer (1949), and that of larger wooden ships by Hurley (1991-1) and Spiller. Dixon describes modern wood and fibreglass boat building in East Anglia. A shipyard employed a number of specialist tradesmen as well as the shipwrights, including:

- ***Anchorsmiths*** were blacksmiths who forged the set of anchors necessary for each ship (MacDougall).
- ***Blockers*** who laid down the blocks on which the ship was built.
- ***Blockmakers*** who made and repaired the thousands of blocks (block-and-tackle) for the rigging and gun carriages (Taylor).
- ***Caulkers*** who used oakum (teased old rope) and pitch to seal the ship's seams.
- ***Colour Makers*** made the flags (colours), in the flag loft and were often wives of officers (Morse).
- ***Draftsmen*** drew up drawings and plans for ships.
- ***Mastmakers*** who worked in long mast houses constructing the masts and spars (MacDougall).
- ***Riggers*** who prepared and fitted the spars, sails and ropes of a sailing ship.

- ***Ropemakers*** made the vast quantities of rope needed by sailing vessels from hemp in the ropery which included a quarter-mile-long rope walk. The job was mainly done by men but some wives of other ranks were employed here too (Morse). Rope making is described by MacDougall, Hurley (1991-2), Wymer (1946), Filbee, and Manners. Related trades are *line, twine and shoe thread makers and netmakers* (Filbee, Wymer 1946).

- ***Sailmakers*** (also called *ships' taylors*) worked in the sail loft producing sails from canvas (sail cloth) spun from hemp yarn (MacDougall, Hurley 1991-2). Dixon describes the manufacture of older canvas and modern terylene sails in East Anglia.

- ***Sawyers*** who carried out the initial cutting of logs into appropriate timbers.

Textiles

The history of textiles in England started from home-based family production of necessary wool and linen materials. Families then contracted with merchants as outworkers to perform a part of the process, such as example spinning or weaving, but any machinery was run by human effort. Silk and cotton were introduced at this stage in the development of the industry. Water-powered machinery for mass production in factories (mills) was introduced in the second half of the 18th century and Benson's Shire book on textile machines illustrates these well.

Silk Industry

The English climate is too cold for rearing silkworms, but a silk industry developed in the late Middle Ages processing imported thread and producing silk goods. The art of making silk thread was developed in England by the *silk throwsters* of London, Leek (Staffordshire), Macclesfield and Congleton (both in Cheshire). The silk thread is reeled off the cocoons in the country of origin and bundled for shipping.

When received in England it is thus ready for throwing, which involves five processes-winding, cleaning, spinning, doubling, and lastly the throwing itself which results in a rope-like thread which is both strong and elastic. Bush gives details of these processes and describes their mechanization during the 19th century. Another process to use the considerable amount of waste silk arising from the above processing was developed from the late 17th century and was termed *silk waste spinning* (Bush).

Early references to *silk weaving* in England occur in the trade protection Acts of the last half of the 15th century banning the import of foreign silk goods. Huguenot immigration at the end of the 16th and again at the end of the 17th centuries provided increasing expertise in the centres of Spitalfields (East London), Canterbury (Kent), Coventry (Warwickshire) and Norwich (Norfolk) (Bush, Young, Murphy). Weavers' houses were characterized by large windows both front and back in the uppermost stories (garrets), where the looms were situated, to ensure good light for most of the day.

Powerlooms of many types were used from the 1830s. *Silk ribbon weaving* was a specialty of Coventry and surrounding area where men and women worked the small loom as an adjunct to their other daily activities as outworkers organized by an undertaker who delivered supplies and took finished ribbons for sale.

The 19th century was the heyday of the fashion for silk ribbon, dresses and other uses, but when the import taxes on foreign silk goods were removed in 1860 the English trade crashed and previously comfortably-off silk weavers flocked to the soup kitchens (Murphy). The demand for black mourning crape continued throughout Victoria's reign, with velvet and plush becoming popular in the late 19th century and made well into the 1930s along with handkerchiefs, ties and bandannas. Shorter skirts from the 1920s created a demand for silk stockings, and during the Second World War all silk was requisitioned for making parachutes, each requiring 67 square yards. When someone found a downed parachute, or they were sold off after the war, they were snapped up. I still have a sheet sleeping bag made from 'war surplus', and my sister-in-law had a dress made from a parachute washed up on the beach in Denmark. The advent of 20th century man-made fibres like rayon and nylon reduced silk production in Britain to only the luxury trade in ties, scarves and furnishing silks (Bush). The whole industry from silkworm to silk weaving is described and well-illustrated by Bush, and Chaloner has a chapter on the 17th-18th century British silk industry. The lives and activities of the Spitalfields (London) silk weavers were investigated by Mayhew (Thompson & Yeo).

Cotton Industry

Derbyshire and Nottinghamshire were the sites of the first *cotton manufactories*, known for short as *factories* and in local parlance as *mills* since they relied on water mills for power. These started in the mid-18th century and spread to Cheshire and then to Lancashire as steam replaced water power. Mills required a complete change in the style of work from that previously known by outworkers. Employees worked under the supervision of an employer usually at routine tasks and for regular hours, although often still in family or neighbourhood teams.

Men ran the spinning mules while women and children were only considered suitable for inferior work such as carding, and piercing respectively. Far more menial positions were needed so women and children outnumbered men in the mills, and the trade attracted large numbers of rural workers to the Lancashire towns up until nearly the end of the 19th century (Hey). The exploitation of pauper children shipped north from southern English parishes is well-known and eventually lead to reform.

The area of south eastern Lancashire comprising the towns of Blackburn, Bolton, Burnley, Bury, Chorley, Oldham, Rochdale, and Wigan, together with adjoining parts of Yorkshire and Cheshire, contained many huge mills and was aptly called *Cottonopolis* and *King Cotton* was the mainstay of Victorian England's economy (Aspin 1995).

Cotton does not grow in Britain but arrives tightly packed and matted in bales from whence it undergoes:

- ***Willowing***, unpacking to allow the fibres to regain their natural state and dry thoroughly.
- ***Blending*** of different quality fibres for different types of yarns.
- ***Scutching***, the cleaning and formation of continuous rolls.
- ***Carding***, which forms straight strands from the twisted cotton by combing.
- Further cleaning, stretching and twisting of threads ready for winding on to bobbins.
- ***Spinning***.
- ***Sizing***.

The machines developed during the last half of the 18th century and later are described by Aspin (1995), and Benson, and history of the era by Bailey (1982) and in more detail by Aspin (1995). Much unrest was caused amongst the spinners and weavers whose livelihood was threatened by the new machines, resulting in the *Luddite Rebellion*. Robert Owen and Lord Shaftesbury spearheaded the reform of working conditions in mills in the first half of the 19th century.

Weaving

Weaving provided a major source of employment in both urban and rural settings from the Middle Ages onwards, usually as a supplement to the family smallholding. It seems to have been at first a female occupation as the early word for weaver was *webster*, which is a feminine form. When it became commercialized then male weavers appeared, and in the towns they formed guilds from at least the 14th century. Guilds controlled weaving in all clothmaking towns with the first craft guild, the Weavers' Company of London being established in 1100, but the Company of Blanket Weavers started as late as 1711 in Witney, Oxfordshire which is still famous for its wool blankets.

Since it took ten spinners to keep one full-time cottage handloom weaver supplied with yarn it is not surprising that spinning was mechanized in the late 18th and early 19th centuries before weaving in the 1820s and 1830s. However the power loom was not adopted widely until the 1830s and 1840s and firstly in the Lancashire cotton trade. This type of weaving was done throughout the 19th century by both men and women on equal terms, a situation unlike any other industry. The woollen and worsted industry in the West Riding of Yorkshire typically used smaller mills and shifted to weaving machines some decades later than the cotton weavers of Lancashire (Hey, Benson). Benson & Warburton discuss the history of weaving with chapters on plain weaving, fancy looms, carpets and special effects, the craft revival stemming from Ruskin and the Pre-Raphaelite Brotherhood in the 1860s, and modern weaving machines.

Settlers from the Low Countries introduced the weaving of *fustians*, cloth with a weft of cotton and warp of linen, into East Anglia in the 16th century (Aspin 1995).

The craft had reached Lancashire by 1600. Short descriptions of weaving can be found in Filbee, Manners, Arnold (1970), and Wymer (1946, 1949). More detail can be found in Arnold (1968), Aspin and Hurley (1991-2). Bailey (1982) has a section on Welsh weaving, Campbell-Passmore describes the life of her Welsh weaver ancestors, and Townsend that of Somerset weavers. McLinden's ancestor wove the silk brocade for Queen Victoria's wedding dress.

The processing of wool has been dealt with earlier, thus it is sufficient here to mention two specific woven products. The fame of Witney, Oxfordshire is its unique manufacture of *blankets*, begun by the Early family in 1669 and continued by eight generations of them! (Bailey 1982). Two different methods of *carpet making* had early origins in England. Wilton, Wiltshire has been celebrated for its carpets since Elizabethan times, when Huguenots brought the craft there. Axminster carpets, originally made in Axminster, Devon are woven slightly differently and also have a long history.

Upon mechanization the manufacture of both types shifted primarily to Kidderminster, (Worcestershire), Leeds (Yorkshire) and Scotland (Bailey 1982). Hurley (1991-2) describes the process, early history is covered by Wymer (1949) and the period 1861-1913 by Bartlett.

☙ Knitting

Hand knitting goes back many centuries, of-course, and was practiced by both men and women for earning extra income particularly in the long winter evenings. It was used as a social occasion amongst women, and this tradition continues in the many small co-operative knitting groups that exist in England & Wales (Filbee).

The stocking frame, which mechanized the production of knitted stockings, was invented in 1589 and several technical improvements arrived, especially in the 18th century.

Previously stockings, which were worn by both sexes, had been sewn together from cloth. Silk, wool and cotton stockings, night-caps, socks, gloves, shawls etc. were now woven or knitted, the latter type being the more durable. The 1811 description (Hurley 1991-2) treats these as two different procedures but this is at variance with later authors such as Bailey (1982)

From its beginnings in Nottinghamshire the wooden hand-operated stocking frame moved into over 100 Leicestershire towns and villages as a cottage and small workshop industry. Those who could not afford a frame hired one from middlemen known as masters who were niggardly towards their outworkers. FWK's (*frame work knitters or stockingers*) were independent-minded and typically nonconformists, Leicester becoming known as the *Metropolis of Heresy*.

During the last half of the 18th century the cottage industry came under intense pressure from:

- Reduced demand for stockings when the fashion for men changed to trousers.
- The Napoleonic Wars stopped exports.
- Disastrous harvests increased the price of bread.
- Mass production in factories by newer, water-powered machinery cut prices.

The *Luddite Rebellion*, named after Ned Ludd, one of the first to smash one of the new, powered machines, started in 1773 and was particularly bad during the period 1810-1816 (Goddard 1990 part II). It involved cottage workers in Leicestershire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire and Yorkshire (Bailey 1982) and also the cotton workers in Lancashire.

The gradual change towards working in a factory or *shop*, rather than being exploited as outworkers, caused the violence to subside, but not until the mid-19th century. The term *Luddite* is still used to indicate a person opposed to change, although the original connotation of oppression and starvation wages does not survive. Further information on frame work knitting can be found in Aspin (1982), Goddard (1990) and in more detail in Palmer (1984).

There are only three surviving years of apprenticeships of the Frameworkknitters' Company (1727-1730) but they are indexed by Webb (1997-2).

Bleaching

Bleachers were formerly known as *whitesters* or *whitsters* and from the earliest times have used three methods of cleaning and bleaching textiles and clothes derived from plant matter:

- By the action of water, sun and air.
- Using the ammonia in fermenting dung and urine.
- Using soap made from ash and fat.

From the end of the 18th century the chemical oxidizing agents chlorine, hypochlorites and peroxides were used.

These required much rinsing after processing, and Hurley (1994) and Aspin (1995) describe the processes. Foster (1999) has written on using newspapers for information about bleachers.

Dying

Hurley (1991-1) describes the work of the dyer and Foster (1999) uses newspapers for information about them. Only one register of apprenticeships, from 1706-1746, for the Dyers' Company survived enemy action in WWII, and these have been indexed by Webb (1999-2).

Textile Printing

The printing of colourful designs on to silk, cotton, cotton-chintz and calico (a cotton cloth that resembles linen) was introduced in the 17s. Townsfolk preferred silk, brocades and damasks but country people liked chintzes (Victoria & Albert Museum) and cottons printed with flowers for clothing and curtains. Printing was either done from wooden blocks, sometimes with raised copper or brass strips or pins on the surface, or later from copper cylinders. Silkscreen printing was introduced about 1930 and its economical rotary form now has most of the market. The trade needed lots of pure fresh water and large fields in which to lay out the cloth to bleach and dry before printing. It was established around Macclesfield, Lancashire, and on three rivers around London—many businesses around Merton on the Wandle in Surrey, with a few at Stratford on the Lea in Essex and at Crayford on the Cray in Kent. My father's family were in this trade for over 200 years, and moved between these four areas for work. My paternal grandfather was a *seven colour man* at David Evans, Crayford (see Chapman 1983), meaning he could handle the correct placement of the maximum seven different blocks on one piece of cloth at a good speed. He was the best printer in the shop, so his position was secure and he never had to look for work in one of the other areas. Textile printing is described by Hurley (1991-2), Wymer (1946), Filbee, and in more detail by Clark. Local archives for the above areas have much to offer the family historian, and articles appear in the journals of the relevant Family History Societies, for example that by Pond. Foster has written on using newspapers for information about calico printers.

Tools & Sports Equipment

◊ Agricultural & Woodworking Tools

The efforts of the carpenter and blacksmith of the village sufficed to produce all that was needed for local agricultural needs. The construction of rakes, made completely of wood, is covered by Arnold (1968, 1970), Manners, Sparkes (1991), Wymer 1946. Tools had a wooden handle and a metal blade. The early ploughs is discussed by Bailey (1982) and other tools by Arnold (1968). Walker's well-illustrated book on woodworking tools is excellent. Lawrence has an article on a small foundry in Devon concerned with making hand edge tools, and now run by the National Trust. Some other items are covered by Ingram (*dairying tools*), Halford (*old lawn mowers*), and Mockridge (weathervanes), and old terms can be identified with Milward's glossary.

◊ Fishing Equipment

Line, *twine* and *nets* have been made from hemp and flax around Bridport in Dorset since the days of King John and they still export worldwide; another net making area is around Lowestoft in Norfolk. The trades are described by Filbee, and Wymer (1946). The best *crab & lobster pots, eel traps,* and *other fish traps* are made of willow and the crafts are explained by Dixon, Arnold (1968, 1970), and Wymer (1946). *Fishing rods* seem to have been made from the 17s and by the 18s were very sophisticated. Most fishing rod and tackle makers were in London and other large towns, but they just assembled parts made by different country craftsmen. Dixon describes the making of older split-cane rods as well as modern fibreglass ones.

◊ Housekeeping Items

Sewing needs *buttons*, which were first made out of gold, silver and precious stones for the luxury trade, and leather or metal disks for the lower classes up to Tudor times. The button industry in Dorset began in 1622 and produced buttons from sheep horn covered with linen, then metal wire covered with thread. In Cheshire and Staffordshire silk buttons were made, whilst the London makers used gold and silver thread. By the early 19th century (mother-of-) pearl buttons were made, and factories around Birmingham made metal and pasteboard buttons. Horn and shell buttons also started to be made in the Midlands, and at the Great Exhibition of 1851 a machine for making linen-covered buttons was shown and caused the demise of the Dorset hand industry. Whole Dorset villages were sponsored by the landowners to emigrate to Canada or Australia (Filbee). The history of buttons is described by the Meredith's, and Hurley (1991-2) deals with the early trade. Other sewing needs are covered by Johnson (*needlework & embroidery tools;* and *thimbles & thimble cases*), and Head (*old sewing machines*). Various tools needed in the preparation of food can be identified by means of Milward's glossary, and Shire books exist for *domestic bygones* (Fearn*), firegrates & kitchen bygones and old cooking utensils* (Eveleigh), *corkscrews & bottle openers* (Perry), and *nutcrackers* (Mills). Items for which materials exist include *keys* (Monk), *buttonhooks & shoehorns* (Brandon), *briar pipes,* the best of which are actually made of heather roots (Arnold 1968), ash and sweet chestnut *walking sticks* (Arnold 1968, Wymer 1946, Manners, Dike), and early *electrical appliances* (Gordon).

◊ Sports & Games Equipment

The bow & arrow was the main defence of England in its lengthy wars against the French in the Middle Ages and every able-bodied man and boy was expected to attend regular practice at the *butts* or risk imprisonment (Wymer 1949). A long bow hung ready in every English home, and a good archer could loose ten shafts a minute, considerably more than with the awkward cross-bow (Arnold 1970). The *bowyer* used the wood of the yew for his bows and these trees were planted throughout England, but the best and most-used wood was Mediterranean. The reason these dense evergreens are so common in churchyards is probably not because they were poisonous to cattle, as Wymer suggests, but that planting protected buildings and continued ancient pagan customs (Friar). The *bow string* was at one time flax or hemp, but later linen thread was used, and modern toxophilites have aluminium alloy or glass-fibre tubing shafts and synthetic fibre bow strings (Arnold 1970).

The *fletcher* made the arrows and engraved his name, by law, upon the steel-pointed heads. The arrow shafts were ash and the flights were made of carefully trimmed goose, peacock or turkey feathers. Archery targets are made from heavy gauge oat or rye straw rope wound into coils and sewn tightly together. A modern one sewn with nylon thread can withstand up to 200,000 arrows before disintegrating (Staniforth). Guns made these instruments obsolete, but they have continued to be made for sport and hunting. The apprenticeships of the Bowyers' Company 1680-1806, the Fletchers' Company 1739-1754, 1767-1808, and the

Longbowstringmakers' Company 1604-1668, 1709, 1714-1717 have been indexed by Webb (1996-3).

The purely recreational game of *billiards* has been played since Tudor times, with tables made at first from oak and covered with coarse green cloth. Standards improved when Welsh slate began to be used in 1839, giving a much truer surface, and covered with fine green cloth and surrounded by African mahogany (Wymer 1949). The making of cues and balls (formerly carved from elephant ivory), are specialized tasks described by Clare. The equipment for other formerly popular recreational board and table games are described in two books by Bell.

Now we come to the quintessentially English sport of cricket! *Cricket bats* were made in Cambridgeshire, Sussex, Nottinghamshire and Yorkshire from Suffolk and Essex willow with handles of East Indies cane. The trade is described by Wymer (1946), Manners, and Sparkes (1991). The hand making of *cricket balls* around Tonbridge and Southborough in Kent for at least 400 years is described by Jain, Manners, and Wymer (1949) and *field hockey balls* are made the same way but enamelled white instead of being dyed red.

Football used to be played with an inflated cow's bladder and was a sport in which the whole town participated at once. The construction of the later variety made of leather is given by Wymer (1949), who also has a section on the making of *rackets* for various games using wood and gut for strings.

Wood & Plant Products

⋆ Forest Trades

A woodman referred to anyone pursuing a craft based on wood in the forest. A *wood cutter* was one who cut down trees and bushes, whilst a *wood chopper* has the connotation of chopping logs or waste wood into small pieces for firewood. The latter could be in a town, such as those in the East End of London (Telkman).

⋆ Barking

Tannin in tree bark was essential for the tanning of leather and the highest amount in England occurred in oak bark, but the smaller amounts in alder, beech, willow and some others were also used. The barker stripped bark from felled trees, or from living ones, and the process, which was also called *flawing* or *rinding*, and tools used are described by Sparkes (1991).

⋆ Charcoal Burning

Charcoal was the first smokeless fuel. Thousands of years ago iron masters had discovered that incompletely burned, or *charred*, wood burnt very hot and when given a forced draught by catching the wind or from bellows it burned even hotter. This high heat was necessary for the development of iron smelting, early steel making, fusion of the ingredients for making glass and the production of gunpowder. Not until the introduction of coke in 1709 did a more efficient method become available. Hence the importance of charcoal burners to these industries of south east England. Charcoal has had many other uses for example

for household fires, in deodorants, biscuits, gas absorbents, fertilizers and heat insulation as well as in the manufacture of armour, chains, and artificial silk. The work was done where the wood, mostly alder buckthorn, oak and chestnut, was found—in the forests. The *charcoal burners*, also known as *wood colliers*, and their families were almost a race apart living there in seclusion. So much wood was felled for making charcoal that first the Wealden forests were denuded and later those of Warwickshire when iron smelting moved there. Descriptions of the methods used are found in Arnold (1968, 1970), Wymer (1946), Manners, Theobald, and a much more detailed work extending also into the modern era is that by Kelley.

⋆ Cork Cutting

Cork oak found in France, Spain and Italy regularly sheds its bark and forms a new layer, but it can be excised in regular sheets. Imported into England, it was cut into the required shapes, mostly as bottle stoppers, but also for flotation devices, shoes, wall coverings etc. Cork cutters were of both sexes but it was one of the dirtiest trades and poorly paid (Hurley 1991-2).

⋆ Felling

Builders, shipwrights' agents and carpenters would select standing timber and trees would be felled by using the axe to make a tapering gap on the side it is to fall, then cross cut sawing from the other side (Arnold 1968, 1970). This would take place in the autumn and winter when no sap was rising, unless the bark was required for tanning when they would be felled in March. Nothing was wasted, for example the cut was

made as close to the ground as possible, the smaller branches, known as *top and lop*, were sold for kindling faggots, and mast and brushwood from oak and beech were gathered for pig food (Sparkes 1991).

⋆ Sawying

The felled tree would be brought to the carpenter's yard where the sawyers would cut it into planks, ba(u)lks (roughly squared beams) or blocks. This was done in the saw pit with the senior sawyer standing on the log above, and his junior partner working the other end of the pit-saw whilst standing in the pit below. Much of their time was spent manoeuvring the timbers and sharpening their saws (Steel & Taylor). Detailed descriptions many types of saws are in Arnold (1968), Hurley (1991-1), Manners and Sparkes (1991).

⋆ Woodlot management

Timber is produced from two kinds of woodland (Arnold 1970): ***Standard wood*** is from ash, beech, birch, oak and pine allowed to grow freely to their natural height and shape. ***Coppice wood*** is where certain trees are planted in rows at regular distances and cut back to their bases, or *stools*, after a certain length of time. In the following years these then throw up numbers of straight shoots which eventually become poles and can be harvested. The tree will then recommence throwing up more shoots. Hazel poles are ready at 7-10 years, sweet chestnut at 10-20 years, but ash takes 30 years. This wood is used for hurdles, fences, faggots, bean poles etc.

Willow growing is a form of management described by Manners, Filbee, Wymer (1946) and Arnold (1968). Osiers are grown in many localities, particularly around Sedgemoor in Somerset, in the places with names ending in *-hope* in Essex, *-garth* in the north, and *-holt* in the Midlands (Arnold 1968). Constructional timber and that for furniture comes from standard wood, both hard and soft. Hardwoods are the deciduous ones, oak, ash, beech and elm in England; they are slower growing and closer grained. Softwoods are the conifers, mostly pines, larch and spruce in England and they are quicker growing, open-grained and all except Scots Pine are very straight as they do not branch like hardwoods (Arnold 1970, Manners).

⋆ Carpentry

The carpenter was one of the essential men in any village and the builder of its houses, as well as making a number of other useful items from chests and cow stalls to pumps and coffins depending on local needs. His work was more varied than that of the other wood craftsmen, the wheelwright, ship's carpenter, joiner and cabinet maker, but some men combined carpentry with another of these trades. Some products and specialized carpentry trades such as carvers, clog makers, coopers, and turners have separate sections here, and general references to carpentry can be found in Wymer 1946, Hurley 1991-1, Arnold (1968, 1970), and Bailey 1975. Mayhew collected sociological information about London's woodworkers including sections on sawyers, carpenters and joiners, cabinet makers, ship and boat builders, (Thomson & Yeo). Nicolle wrote a valuable dictionary for the woodworking trades.

⋆ Barrels, Coopers & Hoop Shavers

The most widespread type of container for storage and shipping for many thousands of years was the barrel. It was strong, with tight joints bound by wooden or iron hoops, and could be stacked or moved easily.

The cooper made a surprising number of shapes and sizes of these containers for all manner of uses, the trade being divided into three branches:

- *White coopers* made barrels, bowls, buckets, casks, churns, butter and cheese tubs, jugs, milking buckets, pails, washtubs, and vats for making home-brewed ale.

- *Dry coopers* constructed the casks for holding apples, butter, fish, gun powder, soap and syrup.

- *Wet coopers* made vessels for liquids such as jams, sauces, wine and spirits.

Coopering was carried out in every town in the land, and there were travelling coopers who made and mended casks in villages too small to have a resident cooper. Large ships all had a cooper on board and custom houses and excise offices each had an officer called the *king's cooper* to attend to these needs.

Standard sizes were laid down in 1420 and each cooper had to brand his casks with his unique sign.

Each type and size had its own name, for example:

- A *pin* holds 41/2 Imperial gallons
- A *firkin* holds 9 gallons
- A *kilderkin* holds 18 gallons
- A *barrel* holds 36 gallons
- A *hogshead* holds 54 gallons
- A *puncheon* holds 72 gallons
- A *butt* holds 108 gallons
- A *tun* holds 252 gallons

Many variations have occur over time and for different products; the reader should consult Chapman (1995) for details.

The local pub may be named after such a measure, for example *The Firkin, The One Pin*, and *The Three Tuns*. The cooper often made a host of other wooden items like ladles, spoons, trenchers (wooden plates) and flour shovels.
Details of the trade should be sought in Kilby, Hurley (1991-1), and Maurin (1994) and there are smaller sections in Manners, Wymer (1946), and Arnold (1968, 1970).

The *hoop maker*, or *hoop shaver*, was formerly an important part of the cooper's craft when the hoops that bound the staves were wooden. The various techniques used for making hoops in different parts of England are briefly noted by Wymer (1946).

⋆ Carving

English woodcarvers worked mainly in oak, although many other native species were used as well as mahogany from about 1725. The work of the finest carvers, like Grinling Gibbons (1648-1720), survives in ecclesiastical buildings and the great houses and can often be identified by the carver's signature emblem such as his peapod. Some history and description of the craft are given by Arnold (1968, 1970) and Filbee.

⋆ Clogs & Pattens

Wooden-soled *clogs* were once a very common, cheap form of footware good for use on wet stones and farms, particularly in northern England and Wales. They are still used where workers have to stand on wet floors, or need the extra protection in steel and electrical production (Sparkes 1991). Two craftsmen were involved:

- The *clogger*, often a gypsy, made the roughly shaped sole from alder, sycamore or birch in the forests of northern England & Wales.

- The *clog maker* personalized it for the individual's foot, made the leather uppers and fitted them together.

The processes are depicted by Sparkes (1991), Arnold (1968, 1970), and Wymer (1946).

A common type of *patten* consisted of a sturdy iron ring, wider than the shoe, on the ground connected with iron to a wooden platform on which the sole of the shoe was placed, and with a leather toe and strap. It looked like a slip-on slipper raised a couple of inches off the ground. Passmore (1992-1) has an illustration and describes both patten and clog making, and Atkinson has produced a Shire book on clogs and clogmaking. Webb (1998-2) has indexed the apprenticeships for the Pattenmakers' Company from 1673-1805.

⋆ Fencing, Gates, Clapboard & Shingles

Fences and gate posts were best made of oak, and gates of oak or elm (Dixon). In the south east of England weatherboarding the sides of houses with overlapping elm or oak boards was popular, a style taken to New England and developed further there. Roofing shingles were mainly of oak, but imported red cedar from North America also became popular. The manufacture of these products are all described by Arnold (1968).

⋆ Hurdles, Wattles & Animal Shelters

Hurdles are fence sections made from a series of upright coppiced stakes with split hazel stakes woven between them, and wattles are a more closely woven and superior kind of hurdle. They have been in use since the Early Iron Age to build house walls between the main timber framing posts. They were daubed with a mixture of clay and chopped straw or cow dung to create a solid wall, the whole being known as *wattle-and-daub* construction. Hurdles are also used as temporary shelters (*shrough sheds*— see Dixon),

movable fencing, sheep enclosures in fields or market places, gates, wind breaks and screens, and a round form as feeding cages (Wymer 1946). Details of the method of making a hurdle are given by Arnold (1970) but in more detail by Manners and Arnold (1968).

⋆ Ladders

The sides of ladders were made of spruce, larch or Norwegian pine, and the rungs (or rounds) of oak or beech. Extension ladders need parallel sides, but others are slightly splayed at the base to aid stability. The Kentish fruit growers' ladders have very wide bases (about 3") and narrow tops to facilitate picking fruit. Average heights are from 15 to 30 feet and the craft was widespread. Construction details can be found in Wymer (1946), and Arnold (1968).

⋆ Turning & Treen Making

In early times food was consumed from a trencher, originally a large slab of bread, later a square wooden platter with perhaps a depression in the corner for salt. When, about 2,000 years ago, the pole-lathe and later the hand wheel lathe and treadle lathe came into use then wooden platters and bowls, collectively known as treen became popular, and many other food and items were possible. The wood turner also made a smaller group of articles by shaving, these include spoons, ladles and forks and here the work of turner and carver overlap. Turned and carved wood tableware was displaced by pewter in urban settings from Elizabethan times, and later by pottery and chinaware, but continued in rural areas until the 19th century, and has made a

comeback in the 20th century. Bobbin turning for lace making is almost a distinct craft (Bailey 1982).

A considerable variety of woods is used by the turner:

- Sycamore is preferred for the preparation of food as it has no taste or smell.
- Walnut is used for egg cups, cruets and peppermills.
- Ash, beech, box, cherry, elm, laburnum, lime, pear, plum, walnut and yew are used for ornamental ware.
- Apple, ash, birch, dogwood, hazel, maple, plum, spindle and willow are used for bobbins.

The craft is described by Arnold (1968, 1970), Hurley (1991-2), Filbee, Sparkes (1991), and Wymer 1946.

⋆ Joiners & Cabinet Makers

Cabinet Making

A *joiner* is one who makes furniture, house fittings and other woodwork, lighter than a carpenter's, and a skilled one is termed a *cabinet maker.* Prior to the Tudor era furniture was rather primitive and consisted of trestle tables, benches and the occasional chair for the most important personage, hence the term *chairman.* Early cabinet makers made chests, multi-functional pieces serving storage, seating and removal needs. Tudor cabinet makers advanced to making tables with solid oak legs and top, panelled chests, more graceful chairs, four-poster beds and a variety of settles (benches and storage chests with backs), sideboards etc. with much decorative carving. The Restoration brought an invigoration of cabinet making with padded chairs courtesy of upholsterers, writing tables, and chests of drawers, together with the

development of the arts of veneering and marquetry using more precious woods. The Golden Age of cabinet making was the late 18th century, followed by the Victorian era of ugliness in design, although not craftmanship (Wymer 1946).

The cabinet maker's craft is described by Hurley 1991-2, Wymer (1946, 1949) and Filbee, and Hey has a select bibliography of major works. Bebb has written on Welsh country furniture, and the 20th century furniture making industry is covered by Hudson (1980). The making of chairs, for which Buckinghamshire is renowned, is addressed by Arnold (1968, 1970), and Sparkes. Chair bodging is a particular kind of chair making whereby the men (*bodgers*) make all the components of the Windsor chair in the Chiltern beech plantations, including the turned portions made with the ancient foot-powered pole-lathe (Arnold 1968, 1970), Bailey (1982), Carter (1993), Wymer (1946). Cabinet and furniture makers as well as upholsterers are listed in Beard & Gilbert, and Kelly & Company. Upholsterers along with dealers in old clothes, furniture and pawnbrokers belonged to the Upholders' Company, formed in 1360. Only one register of their apprenticeships (1704-1772) survives but has been indexed by Webb (1998-8). He notes that the freedom admissions of the company 1698-1803 have been indexed by Walton and the list of masters is on their website at www.upholders.co.uk.

⋆ Baskets & Straw Work

Baskets

Working with willows or osiers and other wood was typically a male occupation, and could employ those disabled by blindness or poor legs. Basket making was one of the oldest crafts in England and the range of products included:

- *Fishermen's eel traps, lobster baskets, salmon traps, swill and cran baskets* (Manners).
- *Sussex trug baskets* or *trugs* only date from 1851, their boat-shaped body being of willow and the handle and rim of cleft chestnut or ash (Filbee, Manners, Wymer (1946).
- *Spale baskets*, also known as *spelks, speels, swills, skips* or *wiskets* are made of interwoven rent oak strips. They were used for potatoes, coal, feeding cattle etc. (Manners, Filbee, Arnold 1970).
- Household *clothes baskets*, plate and *china storage baskets, coal scuttles, cradles, bird cages*, and *fowl cages* (to hold a bird until it was ready for the pot) (Filbee, Wymer 1946).
- Buckinghamshire was the traditional site for making *cane chairs*, also known as *wicker* or *wander* chairs. Chair cane comes from rattan which grows in the East Indies, thus it isn't surprising that it was the Dutch who introduced the cane seat and chair back into England nearly 300 years ago. Rushes are also used as a cheaper alternative, and Manners, Wymer (1946), and Filbee describe both crafts.
- On the farm wheat was sown from *basket seedlips*, *riddles* separated chaff from grain, various *sieves* and even woven *fencing* were made of osiers.

Baskets were also used as *measures* for bushels and half-bushels and for carrying fruit, vegetables, and fodder (Filbee, Wyman 1946).

- *Rush baskets* were mostly made by East Anglian women who also used reeds for making *hats* and *mats* (Manners).
- Pottery crates of cleft and woven hazel are made in the potteries (Arnold 1970).

Basketmaking methods are described by Filbee, Hurley (1991-1), Dixon, Arnold (1968, 1970), Wymer (1946), and 20th century work by Sones. The apprenticeships of the Basketmakers' Company 1639-1824 have been indexed by Webb (1997-6).

Straw Work

The straw portion of cereal crops was a most important commodity with several uses (Staniforth)

- Animal feed and bedding, with the products being used to manure the land.
- Straw mattresses and palliasses for humans.
- Buffers, for example between ships and the quay, and latterly as barriers on race tracks.
- Stuffing, for example in horse collars.
- In thatching and thatch *finials*, the 'signature decorations' of individual thatchers.
- Straw plait for making hats and other items. The straw plait industry was concentrated in the area around Luton and Dunstable, Bedfordshire and lasted from the mid-17th century until about 1920. Groves writes about her plaiting ancestors's trade, and Pearl describes the trade and the plait schools.

- Decorative uses such as wall coverings, delicate marquetry, corn dollies.
- Making bricks.
- Lip work, whereby well-prepared straw was passed through a short length of cow horn to form a continuous roll. This was coiled and bound together with split bramble etc. to form circular containers such as bee skeps, bushel skeps, baskets, and archery targets (Filbee, Wymer 1946).
- Mixed with clay to make cob for building.
- Horticultural beds for mushrooms, cucumbers, strawberries etc.
- Packing of cutlery and other fragile goods.
- Making straw rope.
- Containers, for example bottle envelopes.
- Matting for floors, table mats and cheese displays.

MERCHANTS & RETAILERS

The term *merchant* meant a *businessman* in mediaeval and early modern England. They ranged from wealthy merchant adventurers trading all over the world through average town retailers to poor pedlars. Some traders specialized in one type of goods whilst others dealt in whatever would turn a profit at the time. Although impossible to draw dividing lines, for convenience here,

I have grouped the exporters and importers as *merchants*, and those who sold goods either from a shop or on the street as *retailers*. Merchants, dealers and shopkeepers are readily found in contemporary city directories and newspapers since they found it profitable to advertise. Merchants, dealers (wholesalers), and larger retailers can often be found through business records and the indexes in archives.

Merchants

Those who exported and imported goods and materials were classified either by their commodities such as wine merchant or tea merchant, or by the country they deal with, for example West India merchant or China merchant (Hurley (1991-2). Merchants were townsmen who frequently owned or part-owned the ships they traded in, and the most prosperous ones became leading figures in society. London merchants were frequently the younger sons of landed families sent there to make their fortune rather than having it handed to them on a silver platter like their eldest brother!

Once they had acquired sufficient wealth to retire to a pleasant country seat they usually did so, and few remained *in trade* for more than two or three generations (see Hey for studies in this area).

Shakespeare, in Macbeth and Othello, refers to the English merchants in 16th century Aleppo (Syria) and Saunders notes that the cemetery inscriptions for them start in 1655, earlier than most British ones! Collis described the travels of the successive merchant adventurers *Fitch* (fl 1583-1611), *Roe* (1580-1644), *White* (1650-1689), *Clive* (1725-1774), *Park* (1771-1806), and *Raffles* (1781-1829) developing trade in the Middle East, India, East Indies and Africa. The most important ancient trading centre was the Pool of London, that is the River Thames downstream from London Bridge, with 75% of foreign trade by the late 18th century. Bristol and Liverpool were also important from early times, particularly as the North American trade developed; in fact Bristol mariners probably saw the New World before Columbus did. It was in Bristol that the term *paying on the nail* came about, since the merchants there passed money on *nails*, wooden trays supported by a vertical post (Bailey 1982). A linen merchant would import materials such as linen from Ireland, cloths made of flax and hemp from Russia, Ticklenburghs and other stuffs from Germany, and such types as muslins, nankins, and calicoes from the East Indies (Hurley 1994). The merchant would then sell to the wholesale linen draper (or dealer) who, acting as middleman, sold to the retail linen draper. The large merchant trading companies went into decline in the late 17th and 18th centuries (Prest).

Retailers

This section is about those who bought wholesale goods and sold them from their shops or on the street. Some shopkeepers might call themselves *dealers*, and this term meant those who purchased directly from the importers or producers rather than through a middleman. Thus a tea dealer attended the sales of tea on London Docks when the East India Company ships arrived from the Far East (Bebb 2002).

In the late 17th century there were an estimated 40,000 shopkeepers in England & Wales (King, quoted by Hey), and these were mainly in towns but each sizable village seemed to have at least one shop. Town centres contained the market and the shops, some of which were craftsmens' workshops and others purely retail establishments. Although a shop was called a draper or a grocer probate inventories have shown that they sold a much greater range of goods, depending on local needs. For an excellent article describing the life of retail merchants in Yorkshire in the early 1800s see Bebb (2002). Camp (1999-2) investigated the life of 19th and early 20th century shop assistants, details their horrendous hours and conditions and the progress of legislation, and suggests ample further reading.

Clothing Materials & Dress

Drapers & Haberdashers

Drapers, or *linen drapers*, used to be the supervisors of the makers of woollen and other types of cloth since only they were allowed to buy from the manufacturers or to import it. The *wholesale draper (or dealer)* would buy imported cloths from the merchants, and also British-produced goods from manufacturers in, say Manchester or Paisley. He acted as the middleman by reselling these to the *retail linen drapers* throughout his chosen territory in Britain, through his *travellers* (travelling salesmen). Hurley (1994) lists the specialties of each of the manufacturing towns in 1818. The retail linen draper actually draped selected fabrics across his doorway so they could be seen and felt (Bebb 2002). Since ready-to-wear clothes were not readily available until the mid-19th century drapers were in great demand by seamstresses and tailors. The London establishments were sometimes huge, with dozens of live-in staff called *draper's assistants*, as can be seen from the census returns. Brownrigg (1840-1) presents a fascinating glimpse into their world. *Haberdashers* dealt in the accoutrements needed for sewing, such as lace, buttons and ribbons, and as they imported the better quality items from Milan they were also known as Milaners, which later gave rise to the term *milliner*, one who decorated dresses and ladies' hats. Pins were among the articles introduced by haberdashers and at first were expensive as they were individually hand made, giving rise to the term *pin money*, for that used to buy fashionable frippery.

Food & Drink

• Bakers

England's staple food, bread, has been the subject of much legislation throughout recorded history. The trade was regulated through setting standards of manufacture, as well as brotherly assistance in times of hardship, since the 12th century, when town bakers first formed trade associations. Prices for corn (wheat), flour and bread, as well as standardization of weights of loaves, were controlled by legislation. Bread was still only sold from individual bakers' shops as late as 1900.

• Butchers

Butchers, or *fleshers*, in cities were usually retailers but in smaller towns they also slaughtered mainly cattle and sheep.

Pork butchers specialized in butchering pigs. The *shambles* was the street or area in a city where the butchers lived, and the term has come to mean chaos or mess from the highly unsanitary conditions of waste disposal used there.

Those who dealt in poultry and game were known as poulters or poulterers, and Webb (1998-7) has indexed the apprenticeships of the Poulters' Company 1691-1729, 1754-1800, whose records are deposited at the Guildhall Library.

• Confectioners

Mason depicts the Georgian confectioner's shop and the Victorian sweet shop and brings the story through to rationing during WWII; we traded our tobacco coupons for the old gent next door's sweet coupons, did you? There is an Anonymous article from a market sweet maker with good anecdotes.

• Fruiterers

Dealers in fruit belonged to the Fruiterers' Company and their apprenticeships 1750-1815 have been indexed by Webb (1997-2).

• Food & Drink

A victualler is one who provides food or provisions, whilst a licensed victualler is one who possesses a license to provide alcoholic beverages. Three types of retailers had developed since early times (chart 25) and these were regulated from 1729 by the *brewster sessions*. The 1830 Beer Act added a fourth retailer, the *beer house*. Now any householder who paid rates (taxes) could pay two guineas (£2.2s.0) for a license to brew and sell beer on his premises. In eight years the number of licensed premises almost doubled and from the 1840s the temperance movement tried to fight the evils of alcohol.

CHART 25: Types of Beverage Retailers

- ***Inn***—(15th century), also called a *host house*, supplied accommodation as well as food and all kinds of drink, and was often the social, intellectual and commercial centre of the neighbourhood. Many were staging posts for coaches and had large stables and other facilities.
- ***Tavern***—(15th century), supplied food, ale, beer and wine.
- ***Alehouse***—(15th century), also called a *tippling house*, brewed and sold ale and beer but had no license for spirits.
- ***Beer house***—(began 1830), sold beer & ale but not spirits.
- ***Public house (pub)***—(modern) supplier of food and lodging, and alcohol to be consumed on the premises.
- ***Off-license***—(modern) retailer of alcohol to be taken away.

To complicate matters, some of the above retailers as well as *brandy shops, dram shops* and *street hawkers* sold spirits from early times, this being unregulated until 1751 when the first spirit licences were available (Gibson & Hunter). The painter Hogarth immortalized the first half of the 18th century as the *gin era*, and Rumens discusses the history of inns in this period.

Licenses to sell alcoholic beverages had to be obtained from the Brewster Session, part of the Quarter Sessions or Petty Sessions from 1552, and there were changes in the regulations over the years summarized by Gibson & Hunter. The publican would appear annually to renew his license and signed a *recognizance* to keep an orderly house and not allow whatever games were illegal at the time. The records survive well for the periods 1752-1828 and again after 1871, and will contain the name of licensee and his parish, and often the name of

his pub and names and occupations of two guarantors, and sometimes other notes. They will be in county collections of Quarter Sessions and Petty Sessions records at a county archive and many have been microfilmed. Details of what survives by county are given by Gibson & Hunter. In one incomplete series I examined for Abingdon, Berkshire Henry Prince renewed his annual licence each autumn in 1803, 1806, 1807, 1810 for the *Plough* and 1811 for the *New Plough.*

The licensed victualler, usually known as the publican, *licensee* or *mine host*, held the license and managed the pub. Some of them were tenants of a brewery and sold only their beer (a *tied house*), but others ran a *free house*, not tied to any one brewery, and sold various brands. The publican of a large establishment would hire:

- *Cellarmen* who looked after the barrels of beer in the cellars.
- *Ostlers* to look after the horses if it was a coaching inn.
- *Barmen* who were young men working on the counter of the public (men's) bar.
- *Barmaids* could be relatives of the publican or extra help and worked in the saloon bar (ladies and better class clients, with higher prices to match).
- *Potmen* or *potboys* who collected up dirty tankards and glasses and cleaned them, and acted as general servants.

Many of these employees would receive low wages but have room and board included (Fowler 2002). Many men, and women too, chose this as a profession after having a more strenuous earlier career, particularly sportsmen.

Many ran a pub in conjunction with another part-time occupation, and indeed many of them would name their establishment after this or a former occupation, for example *The Stumps* (a former cricketer) or *The Blacksmith's Arms*. Morris suggests that since one in ten city properties in the 18th century was an inn or tavern then the chances of finding an ancestor as a publican are quite good.

Stan Gooch runs an index of publicans, pubs, inns & taverns, the Brewery History Society and Courage Archive, are both helpful regarding publicans. Those with an interest in London inns and taverns should consult Wittich.

Publicans joined the Innholders' Company and the apprenticeships have been indexed for 1642-1643, 1654-1670, and 1673-1800 by Webb (1998-6). They may also be found in the Brewers' Company 1531-1685 (Webb 2001-2) and 1685-1800 (Webb 1996-1).

• Household Goods

Books

In early times printers were also publishers and booksellers with shops and perhaps a group of chapmen to carry their wares to rural districts. As the trade developed the booksellers subdivided into specialties such as children & education, foreign, law, medical, old, and religious books. The City of London was the early centre of the book trade and their 17th century warehouses had thousands of books as well as chapbooks, ballads, and periodicals. Many worthy volumes were sold in instalments for affordability well into the 20th century; the works of Dickens and encyclopaedias spring to mind. Hey quotes an estimate of about 200 booksellers operating in 50 towns by 1700, rising to 381 in 174 towns by the mid-1740s. Hurley (1994) depicts the trade in 1818, and booksellers belonged to the Stationers' Company.

Other Goods

Furniture sellers, pawnbrokers and *old clothes dealers* belonged to the Upholders' Company. Selling furniture in the 20th century is recalled by Hudson (1980). The *ironmonger* was the domestic department store of its day, predominantly the Victorian period. It made, sold, installed, modified, maintained and repaired just about every kind of metal hardware and domestic machinery, and supplied candles, oils, china, pottery, glass, wallpaper, and 1001 other necessities.

Meadows was one of the last apprentices in such an establishment and has given a wonderful description of the business, profusely illustrated, and wrote another

book on one important item of stock, the oil lamp. Webb (1999-1) has indexed the Ironmongers' Company apprenticeships 1655-1800.

• Street Sellers

These are people for whom little documentation was made. I have divided them into the urban market and street sellers and the rural pedlars, but overlap existed.

• Market & Street Sellers

London costermongers and others who held a more or less permanent stall in a daily or weekly market usually had to be licensed or hold a permit for their stand. Some records of these still exist in local archives. Faulkner has compared Mayhew's work with the census figures and deduced that less than 5% of the perhaps 45,000 London costermongers and their families appear on the 1841 census because they were largely illiterate and suspicious of the motives of the enumerators, and many would not have had a fixed abode. Twentieth century stall holders are described in an Anonymous article.

Perhaps one fortieth of the London population got their living on the streets (Mayhew 1861, Faulkner) and were rarely enumerated on the censuses. Mayhew, in his classic work on *London Labour and the London Poor*, describes and interviews dozens of kinds of London street sellers as well as those who gathered up discarded articles from streets and sewers and sold them.

Apart from the costermongers there were thousands of others who walked the streets. Faulkner estimates perhaps 1,000 old clothes men, 500 watercress sellers, 200 coffee stalls, 300 cats meat men, 200 playbill sellers and a host of sellers of all kinds of ready-to-eat food and drinks, household utensils and necessities, pets, toys, and sheets of songs and last dying speeches, etc.

The *street finders* included 800 -1,000 bone grubbers, mudlarks, scavengers and rag and bone men. Then there were *street performers, artists* and *showmen* estimated at 1,000 musicians, 250 ballad singers, as well as gymnasts, reciters, jugglers, animal trainers and others. *Street artisans* included knife grinders as well as chair, umbrella and clock menders. Another large group of *street labourers* were the 1,000 crossing sweepers, 1,000 chimney sweeps, 1,000 turncocks and lamp-lighters, rat killers and dustmen (garbage collectors). It is highly doubtful that all of these featured on census returns so they are very difficult to trace as individuals. The family historian will need to resort to general descriptions of their character and work. Mayhew's original work has been edited by Quennell which is readily available and cannot be too highly recommended. Morrell has a very useful selection of illustrations and descriptions of street sellers entitled *Street Cries*, and Felgate (1998) delves into the life of the *mudlarks* and *toshers* (sewers hunters).

• Rural Pedlars

Itinerant traders were common by the 16th century at least, bringing town goods to the rural areas when travel for average people was not easy. Some carried packs on their backs and others had a donkey or even horse to do the *donkey work*. Some wholesalers relied on this method of retailing their goods.

Chapmen carried an assortment of useful articles such as cloth and haberdashery goods, combs, knives, looking glasses, toys, tobacco, and knick-knacks as well as the *chap books* for which they were named. These were all kinds of small books, some religious, others instructional or story books, together with ballads and stationers' wares. Chapmen displayed their license number on their pack or display tray.

Badgers, *higglers*, and *hucksters* wore a badge affirming that they were licensed and tended to specialize in food, buying it from farms and selling it further down the route. There were many variations and most would naturally seize any profitable opportunity. Lower down the scale there were casual itinerants such as tinkers who mended pots and pans, and sometimes also begged.

By the end of the 17th century there were about 10,000 pedlars of various descriptions and in order to better regulate them an act was passed in 1696/7 insisting that they be licensed. Some traded solely at fairs and markets but others did this as well as travelling on other days of the week during the better weather.

Each pedlar that traded on the road, had to attend the Quarter Sessions and pay £4 for himself and £4 for each pack animal that he had.

Over 2,500 were licensed in the first year and doubtless many poorer ones evaded the fee. More than 500 of these were based in London, with 134 in Bristol and most of the larger towns had over 40.

CHART 26:
Licensed Badgers & Hucksters from Nichaelmas Quarter Sessions 1759 Canterbury, Kent

The like Licence to John SCOT of Milsted Labourer
The like Licence to Peter BANN of Linsted Labourer
The like Licence to James BEDWELL of Borden Labourer
The like Licence to Elizabeth DAWSON of Bapchild Widow

Spufford shows from an analysis of chapmen's probate inventories, that these pedlars were highly effective in distributing both reading material and sewing needs to the furthest corners of England and Wales.

They can therefore be credited with developing reading as well as fashion amongst the rural poor. Passmore has a good summary of the chapman's trade, and the definitive work is by Spufford. Akehurst attempted an article on *higglers*, but it is far too short to be useful.

• Lodging, Eating & Coffee Houses

Lodging for travellers

In mediaeval times the monasteries and inns provided overnight accommodation for those few who had to travel. Inns flourished after the suppression of the monasteries by Henry VIII and the 2,000-3,000 inn keepers had to be licensed at the brewster sessions. As lodging places, inns along the coach routes tended to be displaced by public houses close to railway stations from the 1830s, although those situated in market places prospered.

The first hotel was built in Exeter in 1768 and was called simply, *The Hotel*, but when it was enlarged in 1827 it became the *Royal Clarence Hotel* after the visit of the eponymous Duchess that year. There were few other hotels before 1800 but the Regency fashion for holidays by the sea, and the necessity for accommodations close to the larger railway stations caused them to multiply.

In earlier centuries inn keepers were members of the Innholders Company. Coaching inns and their more modern counterparts needed to advertise for trade and it is not hard to find annual listings in the various directories, including the Law List and in newspapers.

• Eating places

Food had traditionally been available for the traveller at monastic houses, and then from inns, taverns, public houses, hotels and restaurants as they successively developed to meet the increasing demand. The early records of the London Cooks' Company are kept at the

Guildhall Library and Webb (1999-3) has indexed over 3,000 apprenticeships from 1654-1800. Those who ran premises licensed to sell alcohol will be found in the Victuallers Licences (Gibson & Hunter). Hudson (1980) has discussed the practice of eating out mainly in the 20th century, and if your ancestress was a *nippy* at a Joe Lyons teahouse there is a great history of the company by Bird.

• Coffee Houses

Coffee was introduced into England about 1650, chocolate about 1657 and tea about 1660 (Rumens), and the coffee house, where all three could be consumed, became so popular that by 1698 there were over 2,000 of them in London (Miniature Books). They became the centres of commercial and literary life in the capital and Lloyd's coffee house went on to become a major shipping and insurance concern. Since much business was transacted therein they tend to be listed in directories and the Law List.

MINING & QUARRYING

➢ Mining

The current definition of mining is the extraction of minerals from below ground level, and this could be deep down or open-cast (surface) mining. When an ancestor is known to have been a miner, a common mistake is to assume that he was a coal miner when in fact he could have been involved with the extraction of any number of minerals from gypsum and flint to gold and graphite. Quarrying involves taking various types of stone, sand, and chalk from its bed, typically a surface operation. This section includes information on the extraction of some of the more important minerals of the wide variety with which the British landscape has been blessed. Mines and quarries may have been held by the crown or privately, and the coal industry was nationalized in 1946 under the National Coal Board, being privatized again in 1986 as British Coal. Thus the surviving records are held by a number of private and public bodies. The State only became directly involved with employment conditions and safety in private mines and quarries from 1842 and these records are at the Public Record Office, see their leaflet D35. Sources for the history of mines and quarries can be found in the PRO leaflet D64, and Naylor's *Discovering Lost Mines* makes interesting reading. Information about mines and records of miners should be first sought through county or local archives who will be able to advise on their deposits plus the existence of private archives and local museums. Museums are also listed by Blatchford.

In such a dangerous occupation the likelihood of your ancestor's family being touched by disaster was high, and family lore may indicate a mining tragedy in the past. The story of a family historian's investigation and the sources she used was nicely given by Nock, and there is a *Mines Rescue Research Page* online at http://freespace.virgin.net/kathryn.c. This details pit disasters and heroes, including all the recipients of the Albert Medal, Edward Medal (Mines) and the Empire Gallantry Medal for mining disasters. Another such site at www.cmhrc.pwp.blueyonder.co.uk lists all miners killed at work in England, and there is a North of England Mining Accident Victims 1858-1899 Index covering the four northernmost counties.

➢ Coal Mining

The major coal mining areas of England & Wales are in:

- The north-east stretching from Nottingham to Leeds and from the river Tees to the Coquet. This area was exploited from as early as the 12th century. The cities of Barnsley, Doncaster, Durham, Newcastle, Pontefract and Wakefield were founded on coal and their names evoke powerful images of smoking chimneys, slag heaps and pit-head winding gear.
- South Wales, especially the Rhondda valleys, where the former steep green hillsides became covered with the colliery buildings and interminable rows of terraced houses. Development here started much later and mostly in the second half of the 19th century, the population of 1,000 in 1851 swelling to 160,000 by 1921 (Siân Williams).

There are two Shire books that are readable and well-illustrated, *Coal Mining* by Hayes and *The Collier* by Griffin, and Bailey (1982) has descriptions and illustrations of the methods used in the two main areas.

The Public Record office contains many coal mine records, but absolutely no records of personnel. Records of private collieries existing before nationalization in 1946, where they still exist, are now in their local archives/county record office and may contain personnel records.

Those seeking information about pre-WW II miners should first contact them; some have extensive collections, for example Sheffield, South Yorkshire at website: www.sheffield.archives@dial.pipex.com.

In some cases there are local museums devoted to the industry, thus Durham Mining Museum Archives has a nice website with much information on its collieries and the history of mining, including sample pitmen's bonds, binding workers to their masters and laying down conditions, from 1766 to 1843. For those whose ancestors came from Wales, the South Wales Coalfield Collection at the University of Swansea is unique Bennett and www.swan.ac.uk/lis/swml/.

British Coal has records from 1946 held in different locations; individual miners' records are mostly kept by Hays Information Management.

➢ Copper Mining

Copper is one of the few metals, others being gold and silver, which occur naturally in a more or less pure state rather than having to be extracted from their ores. It has been mined for over 4,000 years and used early on for tools, vessels and mirrors, and later for wire and coins. It also occurs as ores and with the development of smelting it was mixed with tin and zinc to produce the stronger and more durable bronze and brass alloys. In Sheffield cutlery was made by silver plating on to copper, and there are dozens of other uses. To learn about copper mining see Atkinson, and Bailey 1982.

Copper mines have existed from the southwestern tip of England to the far north of the Scottish Isles. The busiest were in Cornwall and Devon with others in North Wales (Hey), Cheshire, Shropshire, Staffordshire and the Lake District, and also in Bute, the Shetlands and Orkneys in Scotland.

Roman, German and French experts have been imported to develop the industry over the centuries and there was much exchange of labour between these areas as old mines were exhausted and new ones opened up.

The invention of the steam pumping engine about 1712 by Newcomen allowed the Cornish copper mining industry to prosper at a time when global demand for copper was increasing rapidly. As a result Cornwall's population almost doubled during the 18th century, and nearly doubled again during the next 60 years.

The increase came mainly from migration from other parts of England, notably Devon, where branches of my west Devon Chowings family travelled over the Cornish border to find work in the mines in the early 19th century. When the Cornish copper boom ended a large ore deposit near Tavistock in south Devon opened up and the miners migrated back again to work it. This was short-lived, however, as richer and more easily worked deposits were discovered overseas and the Cornish and Devon copper mining industry collapsed in the 1850s. Many of these miners then emigrated where their expertise was welcomed in the USA, South America, South Africa and Australia (Gribble & Gribble).

➢ Gold Mining

The Romans appropriated the gold mines around Dolgelly, Merionethshire, Wales from the native inhabitants and both open-cast and underground techniques have been used there. The yield has always been small but has been traditionally utilized for royal wedding rings (Bailey 1982).

➢ Graphite Mining

The purest deposits of graphite in the world were mined at Borrowdale in the Lake District of England. This substance, known also as *wadd, black lead, plumbago,* or *black cawke* was used for pencil lead, as a rust preventer, a fixing agent for blue dyes, for glazing pottery and for black-leading fire grates. In ancient times it was used to brand the local Herdwick sheep and as a medicine of dubious merit. Huge profits from the active mines were made in the 18*th* and early 19*th*

centuries, but by the late 1830s the deposits were exhausted and the families of the miners moved elsewhere (Bailey 1982).

➢ Iron Ore Mining & Smelting

From the pre-historic *Iron Age* making iron involved mining in shallow pits and smelting on windy hills. Development of cast iron depended upon the new blast furnace which required huge amounts of fuel, provided at first by water or charcoal, and later by coal and coke allied with the development of the steam engine. The important 15th-17th century iron working centres of the Weald of Kent, Sussex and Surrey which turned out vast quantities of horseshoes, cauldrons, nails, guns, cannons, firebacks, and assorted tools had completely faded by the late 18th century for lack of nearby fuel.

The newer technology arrived in the midlands and the north of England in the 1560s and continued developing there and in South Wales throughout the ensuing four centuries. The Industrial Revolution was born at Ironbridge Gorge, Shropshire, which now boasts an award-winning museum. It was on the edge of coalfields and on ironstone and limestone and in 1709 the ironmaster Darby, together with a succession of other notable engineers, pioneered the use of blast furnaces together with huge forges and rolling mills here. The resulting pollution gave the area its name, the *Black Country*, and this area was the biggest iron producer in the world up until the mid-18th century.

Further development of the iron industry took place across Britain and steel making was introduced by

Bessemer in 1856. In the east Midlands, especially near Corby, Northamptonshire, iron and coal deposits led to the development of the steel industry here during the period 1880-1920, but this has now declined. North-east England, which has large amounts of coal and iron, saw the greatest development of the steel industry in England. From Sheffield and Rotherham in South Yorkshire to Middlesbrough and up Tees-side to Durham there have been great steel works for over two centuries. The name Sheffield is synonymous with quality steel, and it specialized in knives and cutting tools, the trade being regulated by the Cutlers' Company. Further north bulk steel for car bodies, ship and boiler plates, railway lines, bridge girders and so on are produced. Good histories of ironworking are provided by Hey, Gale and Bailey (1982) and there are many museums worth visiting.

➢ Lead Mining

The most notable deposits of lead in Great Britain are in the Peak District of Derbyshire, with others in Somerset, Shropshire, the Yorkshire Dales, Durham and the Lake District. They have been exploited since Roman times, particularly as a by-product in the quest for silver. The production heyday was in the 18th and 19th centuries but the high cost of upkeep meant that new foreign competition made them uneconomical. Uses included church roofs, gas and water pipes and cisterns (until it was discovered to be toxic), coffins, in paint and the alloy of tin and lead made pewter which has been in use from Roman times. In a similar manner to the stannaries, the Derbyshire *Great Barmote courts* were fiercely independent regulators of local mining

and trading laws. Willies, Bailey 1982, and Hey are excellent sources for lead mining, and Campbell-Passmore (1992-1) details lead miners' records and practices going back to 1194.

➢ Tin Mining

Cornwall, and to a lesser extent Devon, were major sources of tin that was being worked before the Romans came to Britain mainly by *streaming*, that is washing out the waste alluvial sediment with running water whilst leaving behind the heavier metal.

The tin industry had become so important by the reign of Richard I (1189-1199) that a charter for the *stannaries* made the workers their own masters with their own parliament and courts, and exempt from ordinary taxes. Shaft mining was introduced here in the 15th century and tin and copper were often dug from the same mine.

The demand for tin increased from the 19th century onwards with the growth of the food canning industry but, as with copper, overseas deposits started to compete and Cornish miners emigrated so that foreign mines were said to be 'holes full of Cornishmen'. Although vastly diminished, tin mining still proceeds in Cornwall surrounded by the derelict engine sheds of former mines (Bailey 1982, Atkinson 1985).

Quarrying & Working with Stone

China clay working

The most important deposits of china clay (kaolin) outside China are in Cornwall, with lesser ones in Devon. Those around St. Austell were discovered in the mid-18th century and quickly came to be recognized by Wedgwood and Minton, the leading men in the already-established *Potteries* in Staffordshire who shipped vast quantities there. Wymer (1946) and Bailey (1982) have good sections on the extraction process.

▪ Coprolite Mining

Coprolite is the fossilized dung, skeletal remains and shells of prehistoric animals and is an important source of phosphates, in fact the first chemical fertilizers. It occurs as nodules from the size of a pea to a grapefruit embedded in chalk marl in Cambridgeshire and worked from open trenches. The workers turn up on censuses as *coprolite labourers/miners* or *fossil diggers*, and earned about five times the average wage of an agricultural labourer in the mid 19th century (Cockett).

▪ Flint Working & Knapping

Perhaps the earliest industrial archaeology site in Western Europe is the area known as Grime's Graves in Norfolk, a 34-acre Neolithic mining district. Here men entered shafts and tunnels excavated into the chalk to extract flint that was fashioned into axes, arrow-heads and other implements by the process of knapping prior to the discovery of metals. These blades were sharper than those produced from quarried stone.

Flint continued to be an important material, especially for building walls of houses and churches in southern and eastern England where it was also excavated in the chalk ridges of the North and South Downs.

Flints were also used to strike a light and Norfolk flint knappers produced various sizes of gunflints; one of the local pubs is named The Flintknappers Arms. Useful sources for this occupation include Bailey 1982, Wymer 1946, Arnold 1968, 1970, Dixon, and Manners.

▪ Granite Quarrying

The south west tip of England comprising Cornwall and Devon is composed largely of granite, an immensely strong and hard igneous rock. It was quarried on Dartmoor in the 19th century by convict labour from Princetown prison, and in the western part of Cornwall, and transported to ports at first by packhorses and then by horse powered tramways on granite rails.

It was used extensively in its native rough-hewn form for building churches, houses, roads and kerbstones as well as the familiar Tower Bridge and Nelson's Column in London and the Eddystone Lighthouse near Plymouth, Devon.

When the diamond-tipped cutting edges on circular saws became available granite could be used for finer buildings. Only a few quarries are still in production as other stone is easier to work (Bailey 1982). Stanier has a good section on granite quarrying.

▪ Lime Quarrying

Lime was a much-used commodity in cement and mortar for building houses and walls, and in plastering, and as lime-wash to waterproof walls and lighten interiors.

Lime was also needed to bleach paper, in the preparation of hides in leather making, to disinfect dung pits and graves, and as an agricultural adjunct to de-acidify soil. Limewater was even drunk as a medicine. Now there are new applications in water purification, effluent treatment and in the chemical industry.

Its use has been noted since pre-historic times but it was the Romans who first used effective lime kilns to burn limestone to produce quicklime. Former lime kilns can be widely found in limestone and chalk districts as well as at coastal ports and canal basins where lime was brought as return loads and there processed.

Most are from the 18th-19th centuries, but some date back to the 1500s, and most are small except when abundant fuel was locally obtainable such as from the coal fields of Northumberland.

The processes used by the limeburners have been well described and illustrated by Richard Williams. The vicinity of the warm kilns were favourite places for tramps to sleep, and is not at all uncommon to find burials for those falling into the kilns or overcome by the carbon dioxide fumes.

▪ Millwrighting

The traditional miller needed the skills of a millwright for the dressing and setting up of millstones critical to efficient usage. Different stones were used for different seeds, such as barley, wheat, oats, rye, or beans and for different products such as animal feeds or flour. The most widely used were the gritstones from the Peak District of north Derbyshire, but French stones were preferred for white flour milling. In the late 19th century composition millstones were developed from cement and a granulated material such as emery, and metal roller mills also became common.

Further information is given by Arnold (1970), Watts, Manners, and Dixon. The development of watermills and windmills is addressed by Arnold (1968) and Manners, and an index of millers, mills & millwrights is available.

▪ Paving

Prior to the development of concrete and tar macadam, pavio(u)rs were responsible for paving the streets (roads) and pavements (sidewalks) with either square granite blocks or rounded beach cobblestones, both embedded in screened gravel or sand. In London this started in the early 15th century, but only the major arteries were so paved at first. Hurley (1991-2) gives a description of the work, and the London Pavio(u)rs' Company apprenticeships 1568-1800 have been indexed by Webb (1998-9).

▪ Slating

The quarrying of slate has been a major industry in north Wales, the Lake District, Cornwall and also at Swithland in Leicestershire, the latter since Roman times. It began around Snowdon in Wales in the mid-18th century and production peaked about a century later, and it continues in this region which has one of the biggest and best slate deposits in the world.

A slate mining village like Corris, Merionethshire, which I have frequently visited, must have been a dreary place in which to live: up in the cold, bleak hills surrounded by piles of slate mine waste and everything the same dark grey since it was all made of slate—houses, roofs, chapels, fences, the bridge and even the tombstones!

Slate is admired because it can be cleaved into thin wafers which are therefore light in weight, and it was used throughout Britain for roofing houses and factories.

Other uses include writing slates in schools, kitchen sinks, mantelpieces, millstones, cheese presses and it is particularly good for tombstones as the inscriptions do not weather easily. Nowadays it makes an attractive medium for engravings of local scenes and wildlife for the tourist market (Dixon). Wymer (1946), Manners, Bailey (1982), Stanier and Merfyn Williams have more about the slate industry.

Stone Quarrying & Stone Masons

There are hundreds of small quarries all over Britain, each a formerly important feature of the local economy. The nature of the rock usually dictated production of specific kinds of stone for building, millstones, grinding stones, roofing slates, etc. The most useful stones for building are the sedimentary Jurassic *limestones* which run in two parallel bands north to south from the North Yorkshire Moors to the Isle of Portland in Dorset. Portland Stone is one of the world's finest building materials, having been quarried from the 14th century and transported by water for use in such places as Exeter Cathedral, and the Tower of London. In the quarter century after the Great Fire of London (1666) 50,000 tons of Portland stone were shipped to London to rebuild the capital. *Sandstones* are also sedimentary rocks, the strongest being the coarse-grained millstone grits of Derbyshire and the Yorkshire Pennines; these were used for making grinding stones for the Sheffield cutlery trade and for wind and water mills. The fine-grained, softer and thus more easily worked limestones and sandstones are known as *freestones* and are used for ornamental work on buildings etc. Stanier has good sections on limestone and sandstone quarrying.

The advent of canals and railways enabled these heavy products to be transported more economically and thus supply a wider area, which meant that larger quarries came into being in the 19th century (Hey). Stone has now become very expensive compared to concrete, brick, and other synthetic materials for the building

industry, and more deserted quarries are encountered. Wymer 1946, Bailey 1982 and Stanier all have good information on quarries & quarrying and Manners also deals with stone roofs. 'The business of the stone-mason consists in the art of hewing or squaring stones and marble; in cutting them for the purposes of building, and in being able to work them up with mortar' (Hurley 1991-1). The masons were the most important of the mediaeval building craftsmen as they designed and superintended the whole construction much as a modern architect would. Their work was largely seasonal; they stayed at home with their families on their smallholdings during the winter but in early spring started travelling to their various building sites. The 19th century censuses were taken in the travelling season so masons are frequently enumerated in a different place from their families. Each mason placed his own distinctive mark, about two inches long, upon the stones he had dressed and it is thought that registers of these marks were kept by the masons' guilds to identify workmanship and wages due. Sometimes marks were passed from father to son. Descriptions of the stone mason's work are found in Wymer (1949) and Hurley (1991-1), and Dixon describes the making of gravestones. Stonemasons are frequently found in *turnpike trust records* being paid for building or repairing bridges, tollhouses or milestones. There is an index of stonemasons, and another of West Country stone and quarrymen which includes related occupations such as builders and plasterers as well. The early records of the London Mason's Company are at the Guildhall Library and 1,881 apprenticeships from 1663-1805 are indexed (Webb 1999-4).

Salt

Salt was necessary as a food preservative from early times as well as for other purposes such as producing soda for soap making. Anciently salt was extracted in many coastal areas by boiling seawater, and from inland brine springs in Droitwich, Worcestershire and in Cheshire. The suffix *-wich*, as in Nantwich and Middlewich, is a good clue to the existence of former salt workings in this area. Ancient pack-horse tracks called saltways were used for transport of this valuable commodity. In the 17th century rock salt was discovered in Cheshire and thus mining and chemical extraction replaced evaporation as the favoured production method. The industry is ongoing and interested visitors can visit a salt works and museum in Northwich (Bailey 1982). Lloyd has written on salt pans in Hampshire.

PROFESSIONAL

During the 16th-18th centuries the term profession was used to denote any occupation by which one earned a living. There was also a narrower definition including only the high-status occupations, particularly 'divinity, law and physic' (medicine).

From the mid-seventeenth century, this group has broadened widely. I have chosen to include administration and civil servants; art and amusement; education; science and engineering; and sports in addition to the classic three professions.

They are all more highly developed and organized than they were in the 17th century. Prest concluded that historically the greatest professional opportunities for exercising power and acquiring wealth came first in the church, then in the law, and only later in the medical, scientific and technological areas.

Since many professionals tended to have been recorded systematically during their lives, by receiving training, sitting examinations, receiving appointments of various kinds, and advertising themselves in contemporary publications, it has been much easier to compile biographical dictionaries and Who's Who volumes about them. These regular library sources are easy to access and have not been enumerated here.

Administration & Civil Servants

• Accountants

There have been professional societies of accountants since 1870 and a downloadable leaflet on their history and activities is available from the Guildhall Library which has many of their records. However, all membership records and indexes, which include dates of articling and examinations, and firms for whom they worked are with the Institute of Chartered Accountants in England & Wales. The Institute maintains a collection of accounting material dating back to 1492.

• Civil Servants

Family historians are surprised by the amount of material available about civil servants, for the British government has kept good records of them. It should be noted that until well into Victoria's reign government posts were awarded by patronage. Change started with a report in 1854 and entry by competitive examination, promotion on merit, and improved pay and pensions were in effect by 1870. The civil service was by then divided into administrative, executive and clerical grades. Herber summarizes the most relevant materials. The upper levels of civil servants are listed in the annual calendars, almanacs and directories since 1669. There have been a number of these, *Whitaker's Almanac* beginning in 1868, being perhaps the most well-known. Others are the *Civil Service Year Book* from 1873, the *Colonial Office List* from 1862, and the *Foreign Office List* from 1852 (chart 27) and many appointments are noted in the *London Gazette*. The Public Record Office leaflet D38 reviews sources for tax collectors and civil servants, as does Bevan who

also gives the list of the volumes of *Office Holders in Modern Britain* 1660-1939. The Society of Genealogists is indexing the copies of birth and christening certificates submitted by civil service applicants between 1855 and 1880 which they hold. Camp (1994-1) gives further sources for government employees, including those who had to submit petitions & take oaths, for example the sacrament certificate. Camp (1999-3) lists the series of volumes started in 1972 called *Office-Holders in Modern Britain*. Freeman outlines her quest for Tudor civil servants through various materials in the Public Record Office such as State Papers.

CHART 27: Foreign Office List & Diplomatic & Consular Handbook 1898. Statement of Services

CROMBIE, Rev. Francis
was Consular Chaplain to the Scots Church at Paris from August 21, 1860, till October 29, 1863. Is professor in the University of St. Andrews.

CROMIE, Capt. Charles Francis, F.R.G.S.
entered the Army, January, 1878; promoted to be Captain, October, 1884. Retired, April, 1892. Passed an examination, August 20, 1894; and was appointed Vice-Consul at Dar-al-Baida, Morocco, August 27, 1894. Was Acting Consul at Dar-al-Baida from May 20 to September 11, 1897. Is a member of the Order of St. John of Jerusalem in England.

CROWE, Eyre Alexander Barby Wichardt
passed an examination and was appointed a clerk in the Foreign Office, May 23, 1885. Passed an examination in Public Law, June 22, 1886. Was appointed Assistant Secretary to the British Delegates at the International Sugar Conference in London, November 11, 1887; and Assistant Secretary to the British Special Commissioners for the Sugar Bounties Convention, April 25, 1889.
Note: many entries are much longer than those selected.

• Estate Steward

The *estate* or *land steward* has been a part of the English landscape as long as people have owned land and needed someone else to manage it for them. He needs to be distinguished from the *bailiff* who merely collected the tenant's rents and ensured their attendance at manorial courts. A large estate may have employed several *under stewards* as well as bailiffs, and in the 17th century sometimes the terms steward and bailiff were used almost interchangeably. During the 18th-19th centuries estate stewards became a highly professional group responsible for increasing agricultural efficiency. An estate steward was not required to serve an apprenticeship, nor be examined as to his competence, nor belong to a professional body. However, he needed a very broad knowledge to run an estate, and be able to mobilize other professionals and tradesmen, and deal with labourers as well as dukes if the need arose They were therefore usually older men with worldly experience and managerial skills. The duties of the estate steward varied immensely with the size and complexity of the estate, his own expertise, and how often his landlord was absent. There is little written about estate stewards except Hainsworth who supplies further details and a reference list.

• Hangman

The hangman or *finisher of the law* is described by Jerrold (1840-2) and Jeffery, who is descended from the famous William Calcraft. If any of your ancestors are noted as dying by *dancing on a slack rope*, or *at the end of a rope*, or *dancing on nothing*, they met a hangman.

• Informers & Spies

An interesting contemporary view of those obtaining a living as common informers is given by Jerrold (1840-1). If they were caught there could be extensive information about their activities. Fascinating glimpses can be found in the Newgate Prison Calendar via http://www.law.utexas.edu/lpop/etext/completenewgate.htm. A friend researching a Lutterloh ancestor suspected of being a double agent found him involved with the French spy Francis Henry De La Motte who was executed at Tyburn in 1781 for High Treason. The two pages of detail on the net lead to newspaper accounts and the full 80-page trial transcript including the cross examination of Henry Lutterloh on film.

• Inspector of Nuisances

To the modern Briton the name immediately conjures up a desire for a re-instatement of this occupation! But what did they do?

We get a clue from the North American term *nuisance grounds* meaning a town tip or garbage dump.

Nuisances were refuse heaps, smells, insanitary conditions, and even overcrowding, so he was the local *sanitary inspector* or *environmental health officer* appointed after the Nuisance Removal and Prevention of Diseases Act of 1846. Records of appointments etc. will be found in local archives, and Maybrey's article explains their duties.

• Parliamentarians

The Parliamentary Archives is called the House of Lords Records Office and Camp (2001-3) explains its contents and the website www.parliament.uk details opening hours.

A series of biographies of Members of Parliament from 1386-1832 is being published on (expensive) CDs which you could access through libraries; see Seaward and http://www.histparl.ac.uk/hop for details. The case files and minutes of the Royal Literary Fund is a lucky dip that contains submissions from former politicians now in reduced circumstances (see Royal Literary Fund & Cross).

• Parish Officials

The records of parish officials will mainly be in the many items contained in the parish chest, and these as well as the duties of the *churchwarden, vestry member, pew opener, sidesman, knocknobbler, constable, overseer of the poor,* and *highway surveyor.* Other important parish officials are noted here. The *parish clerk* was a literate man, (or occasionally woman), appointed to assist the parish incumbent, paid out of church funds and often held the position for life. Originally he was in minor orders but this changed at the Reformation. His duties included:

- Making arrangements for services, including christenings, weddings and funerals.
- Leading the singing and responses during services, hence the nickname *amen clerk.* An 1815 epitaph for Philip Roe of Bakewell, Derbyshire announces:

> *The Vocal Powers here let us mark*
> *Of PHILIP, our late Parish Clerk.*
> *In Church none ever heard a Layman,*
> *With a clearer voice say Amen.*

- Reading from the bible during services.
- Entering the details of christenings, marriages and burials in the *parish register*. He may have kept daily notes on slips of paper, or had a rough book from which he drew up the official register weekly. It is largely to 'his punctiliousness, or otherwise' (Skinner) that we owe the condition of the parish registers.
- Responding to requests for copies of entries in the parish register.
- In earlier times he was responsible for sprinkling holy water and sometimes for educating children of the parish.
- In small or poor parishes he would act as the *sexton*, who dug graves, tolled the bell and did church maintenance jobs, and attended to heating.
- If he was musical he may have organized a choir or band of players to augment services (Weir), and play on special occasions, as in Hardy's *Under the Greenwood Tree*.

The parish clerk could exercise considerable influence over his incumbent, especially if the latter was inexperienced, as in Thompson's *Lark Rise to Candleford*. Some notes on how the parish clerk was paid are given by Skinner. A guild of Parish Clerks of the city of London was formed in 1232, whose records are in the Guildhall Library and which still performs useful work in the city (Royall). Amongst its

memorable duties prior to 1858 was the compilation of *Bills of Mortality*, which are often quoted in respect to the 17th century plague years. An 1844 act of parliament transferred most of the parish clerk's duties to curates, and when civil parishes were created in 1894 most of the rest were given to the secular *clerk of the parish council*. The parish clerk now is only responsible for the care of certain documents and maps (Friar). The *beadle* was a minor elected and paid parish officer with a variety of duties in different parishes:

- As *town crier* ringing a bell and making announcements, such as bidding parishioners to attend vestry meetings. The Town Criers Guild can provide more information on this occupation.
- Responsible for keeping order, and perhaps replacing a constable.
- Ceremonial duties such as leading dignitaries in procession.
- Acting as a subsidiary to the vestry in the relief of the poor, for example in whipping vagrants; in escorting persons given removal orders back to their parishes; and in arranging apprenticeships for pauper children.
- Dickens created Mr. Bumble in *Oliver Twist* as the archetypal beadle, and Webbe has given us a most telling and humorous account of such a character.

• Prison Officers

Prison officers have always been members of the Civil Service and few records were kept of them except if they received a pension, in which case the Public Record Office staff appointment books and Paymaster General's books may be useful. Background information can be sought from Thomas and from a history of the prison in which he worked, which should be available from the local archives or public library.

• Registrar & Vaccination Officer

The civil position of Registration Officer was created in 1837 to collect birth, marriage and death registrations in each district. In 1867 vaccination against smallpox was made compulsory and local Vaccination Officers was created and men held both these positions. The registrars were also the Relieving Officers for their Poor Law Union and as such their careers can be traced. Kernick relates the story of father and son registrars in his family.

• Spy

Believe it or not, there is documentary material about British spies covering the period 1791-1909 at the Public Record Office in classes HD1-4 (Fowler 1995). Information about these and other useful material is included in their leaflet M26. Information about the recently released Security Service (MI5) documents, including 20th century material, is on the PRO website at www.pro.gov.uk. Campbell-Passmore (1994) has a good account of her Elizabethan spy ancestor, and Fowler (1996) tells of a 1794 spy's contract.

Art & Amusement

☆ Entertainment

As background sources for early recreation and entertainment the works of Strutt and the Quennells are exemplary. Floate (1999, 2002) writes on peripatetic ancestors, this group including many types of entertainers. *Street performers* are well covered by Mayhew (1861) who described everything from jugglers to German street bands, and dancing dogs to pavement artists. An Entertainers' Index exists. One thing to bear in mind is that they often change their name, they don't necessarily work in this field or for a lifetime, and they can disappear on tour for periods of time (Brazier)

☆ Circus

If one of your ancestors wanted to escape from the responsibilities of his existence one of the methods was to run away and join the circus. He didn't have to be a talented entertainer, as they employed dozens of grooms, baggage masters and labourers (Turner 1988). Some articles covering the life of circus people and sources for researching them are by Goddard (1989, 1994-2), Newman, Pople and John Turner (1988, 1990, 1997). There is a Circus Historical Society, and Turner runs the Circus Friends Association and has published a directory of 19th century circus performers called *The Victorian Arena. The Era* magazine included circus people (see below under 'theatre').

☆ Fairgrounds

The National Fairground Archive, the Showmen's Guild and the Fairground Society and Frances Brown's book can provide information about fairground people.

☆ Theatre

One thing likely to cause confusion in this profession is that a *comedian* was the old name for an actor who played in comedies, as opposed to *tragedians* who specialized in tragedies. Another is that during the 19th century actors typically moved to their next performance location on a Sunday, and as censuses were taken that night, they were often missed. The British Theatre Association, the Theatre Museum and the Mander & Micheson Theatre Collection are good sources. The Guildhall Library in London maintains a collection of playbills, and there is a special collection of theatrical books and newspapers at Westminster Reference Library in London. An excellent article giving the history of the profession and many further references is that by Fearn (1999). Douch describes the life of a Georgian theatrical couple. The weekly magazine for the theatrical profession 1838-1939, *The Era*, is now on CD (review by Cavell). There is also an annual digest 1868-1919 called The *Era Almanac* which forms a useful index. The *Biographical Dictionary* by Highfill et al. is most useful for careers in the period 1660-1800, and includes the support staff as illustrated in chart 28.

CHART 28: Listing in Biographical Dictionary of Actors. Actresses, musicians, Dancers, Managers & other Stage Personnel in London, 1660-1800.

DASHWOOD, [John ?] *[fl. 1799-1813] doorkeeper*
Mr. Dashwood was a doorkeeper at Drury Lane from at least as early as the 1799-1800 season. His name appears in the account books through 1803-4 at a salary of 9s daily. He was at the Lyceum Theatre in 1811-12 and 1812-13, again, as a house servant, though his precise function there is not known. Perhaps the following entry in the St. Paul, Covent Garden, parish registers concerned him: John and Sarah Dashwood baptized their daughter Pamelia on 31 October 1803.

☆ Music

A wide variety of materials exists on music and musicians, and most are easily found in libraries. A few of the less well-known are offered here:

- Weir has covered the early history of *country, church and town bands*, including the instruments, contests, and the 19th century development of brass bands and bandstands.
- *Bellringing* is featured by John Camp, and Ketteringham.
- *The Biographical Dictionary* by Highfill et al. is most useful for careers in the period 1660-1800.
- Collections of *ephemera*, loose handwritten or printed sheets such as concert programmes, not intended for posterity, can be found at many archives and local history libraries.

- The *Music Hall* is a popular subject of nostalgia, for example in Gandy's 1999 article. One of several good books is that by Busby, and a British Music Hall Society exists.
- *Performers* are well documented in the usual library sources. Some 18th century ones can be found in the 1765-1800 apprenticeships of the Musicians Company indexed by Webb (1998-1).
- *Teachers* usually termed themselves *Professors of Music*, and very few of these were university faculty members. Those who were can be tracked down through the appropriate university archives or the Royal Academy of Music Library at www.ram.ac.uk (Manton). For those in one of the Services try the Royal Military School of Music.

☆ Visual Arts

Similarly much exists on the visual arts, and is easily found in libraries. A few of the less well-known are:

- A general source on *Artists*, including painters, sculptors, designers, craftspeople, design groups and studios is the Artists Papers Register at http://hmc.gov.uk/artists.
- The art of *engraving* is covered by Hurley (1991-2).
- Hurley (1991-2) also describes *painting*, and Dixon covers the decoration of articles called *lovage*. Hurst deals with tracing maritime painters.
- *Photography* has been here since 1840; Hannavy's books on Victorian photographers and the pioneer Fox Talbot are well worth reading, as is Moffat. *Pritchard's Directory of London Photographers* 1841-1908 is a valuable source for photographers as

well as the history of photography and he helpfully lists similar publications for other cities.

- *Slate etching* is a novel craft described by Dixon.
- *Stained glass making* is covered by Dixon, Wymer (1949), and Harries & Hicks.
- The *sculptor* or *statuary's* work is covered by Hurley (1991-2).
- Artistic *straw products* are described by Staniforth.

☆ Writing

Biographies of authors can be found in the usual biographical dictionaries. An unusual source which is available on microfilm, (starting at film 1473489 and indexed at the end of the film run), is the case files and minutes of the archives of the *Royal Literary Fund* 1790-1918. They contain applications, supported by all kinds of fascinating documentation, for financial help from authors, their widows or dependents. These are not just literary authors but include explorers, scientists, clergymen, politicians, lawyers and others who had been published. Some examples from the minutes of the Literary Fund Committee on are in chart 29.

CHART 29: Examples from Royal Literary Fund Minutes (Film 1473640)

Prince of Wales Coffee House, Conduit Street.
Thursday May 19, 1796. *Case 41. Vol 1.£10.10*
Mr. James Martin having applied by Letter, to the Committee, on behalf of ***Mr. Saml. Taylor Coleridge*** *of Bristol, Author of a Volume of Poems, & several prose writings; & representing him to be in a very distressed situation;*
Resolved: That Ten guineas be presented to him; & Mr. Scott is desired to convey that sum to him.
[Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772-1834) was one of the great poets of the 19th century - his *Ancient Mariner* is the best remembered].

Prince of Wales Coffee House, Conduit Street.
Thursday Nov 15, 1798. *Case 66. Vol 2.£10.10*
Resolved That a Donation of Ten Guineas be presented to ***Mrs. Eliza Thomson (late Cumins)*** *who formerly kept a Boarding School of considerable reputation for Young Ladies, in Kensington Square; Authoress of an Introduction to Geography & Astronomy for the use of Young Ladies & of a Synopsis of the Planisphere of the Earth, & of a Map of Europe; She being now advanced in Years, & in very great distress, through the ill treatment of a bad husband. The Rev'd T. Bracken is requested to deliver it to her.*

Prince of Wales Coffee House, Conduit Street.
Thursday Dec 20th, 1798. *Case 67. Vol 2.£5.5*
Resolved That Five Guineas be given to ***Mr. John Abercrobie****, Author of Every Man his Own Gardener; the Universal Gardener & Botanist; the Wall Tree Pruner, etc. etc.; he being in great distress from age & incapacity; being upwards of seventy years of age. Mr Brooke is desired to send the money to him.* *Case 68. Vol 2.*
Resolved That a Donation of Twenty Pounds be presented to ***Rev'd John Shepherd****, Curate of Paddington; Author of a Commentary on the Common Prayer etc.; he being in great distress, with a family of ten or eleven Children. The Rev'd T. Bracken is desired to give him this Donation.*

Prince of Wales Coffee House, Conduit Street.
Thursday Mar 20, 1800. *Case 83. Vol 1.£5.5*
Resolved That Five Guineas be given to ***Mary Agnes Richardson****, Widow of Mr. William Richardson, Printer, Nephew to Mr. Saml Richardson, the celebrated Author of Pamela, Clarissa, [The History of] Sir Ch. Grandison, etc; She being now in very great distress; provided this Donation be approved of by the next General Meeting. Mr. Nichols is requested to present this Sum to her.*

One can then refer to the Case Files, and in film 1473643 is that for Mrs. Jean Burns, widow of the Scottish poet Robert Burns. The list of contents is in chart 30 and the items themselves contain considerable detail about the family.

CHART 30:
Jean Burns File from Royal Literary Fund

File No. 46 Mrs. Jean Burns, widow of Robert Burns (1757-1796): Authorship, Poetry, Correspondence

1. John Syme to J. Tiffin Stewart Aug 30 1796
A letter covering White's application on behalf of Mrs. Burns.
2. T. White to the Committee Aug 30 1796
Application on behalf of Mrs. Burns "The improvidence of men of genius is proverbial."
3. W. Maxwell and Syme to J.M. Stewart Oct 27 1796
Acknowledgement, endorsed by Jean Burns.
4. Thomas Somerville to Sir James Bland Burges Aug 30 1801
Further information respecting the investment of the 1796 grant.
5. Jean Burns to the Committee Dec 26 1801
Acknowledgement of £20.
6. Charles Murray to Octavian Blewitt May 19 1842
Recommends Mrs. Beggs, sister of Robert Burns, for assistance.
7. Murray to Blewitt May 21 1842
"I am perfectly satisfied with your explanation regarding the case of Mrs. Beggs."

Education

Early teachers were usually employed by the church and taught little else but reading, writing and a little arithmetic. After the Reformation they were required to be licensed, not according to their ability but mainly so that they conformed to the Protestant religion even if they taught in a secular school. However, although this definitely applied to grammar and endowed schools, unlicensed teachers at village dame schools and plenty of others also taught. Both the Established (Anglican) Church and many other denominations sponsored schools and employed teachers sympathetic to their doctrines. Teachers of a wide range of abilities were also employed by charity schools, Sunday schools, Ragged schools, private schools, factory and colliery schools, military and workhouse schools.

Cressy, in his work on Elizabethan and Stuart school teachers, explains that at this time teaching was an occupation of people of a wide variety of backgrounds, education, and motivation. A few were indeed professional in their approach, but the typically pitiful salaries and conditions did not attract suitable persons so schoolmasters had a rather low status compared with other occupations. Only when salaries and conditions improved did school teaching attract enough intelligent, well-educated and dedicated people to enable it to develop into a profession in the modern sense.

Hey has a good summary of British education, and Chapman's 1992 overview is comprehensive on all types of education from the very beginnings until the

20th century. Background information on the life of teachers, from a family history perspective, include:

- ✓ Howitt's (1840-1) insightful essay on the *Victorian country schoolmaster*.
- ✓ May (1996-1) writes and illustrates well the *Victorian schoolroom*, including sections on the training of teachers and the school day.
- ✓ Development of elementary education by Black.
- ✓ Giles comments on *dancing masters* from mediaeval times to the 19th century.
- ✓ Alefounder traced a *writing master*.
- ✓ A Victorian view of the *governess* is given by Maurin; English governesses who went to Russia are the subject of a paper by Hall, and Morgan comments on those who went to Australia.
- ✓ The Public Record Office leaflet D63 concerns training and registration of teachers since 1846 when pupil-teacher assistants and Queen's (later King's) scholars were introduced.

Information about specific teachers can be found in various places, amongst which are:

- ✓ The *university alumni registers* and various *school registers*.
- ✓ *Parish chest materials* especially minutes and accounts of the churchwardens.
- ✓ The Public Record Office leaflet D63 lists the *national records* where teachers are recorded during training and service.

- ✓ *Teachers Registration Council Registers* 1902-1948 are deposited at the Society of Genealogists and discussed by Cleaver.
- ✓ *Licences* issued by the Diocesan authorities, as shown in chart 31.

CHART 31: Diocese of Canterbury, Kent
Examples of Schoolmasters' Licences in Register (Film 1836361)

3rd April 1746 before the Rev'd Thomas Lamprey clerk Surrogate
er present John Kelt N.P.
A Licence went out to Mr. Thomas Hull to teach an endowed school in the parish of Milton next Sittingbourne in the Archdeaconry of Canterbury he having first exhibited a certificate of his being duly elected & chosen Master thereof & having also taken the Oath & Subscribed such Articles as the Law in that Behalf required.

July the 8th 1760 Before the Rev'd John Gooch [?] Clerk Surrogate
er present Geo. Plume N.P.
A Licence went out to William Somes to teach a school in the parish of Wingham in the Diocese of Canterbury, He having first exhibited a certificate of his being duly Qualified for same & having also taken the Oath & Subscribed to such Articles as the Law in that Behalf required.

Law

In the 14th century the training of lawyers was formalized by the founding of four Inns of Court in London which still exist:

- ⇨ *Lincoln's Inn*
- ⇨ *Middle Temple*
- ⇨ *Inner Temple*
- ⇨ *Gray's Inn*

These became, in effect, the third university in England, and students were of two kinds: firstly, those intending to practice law, and secondly, sons of the nobility and gentry for whom a knowledge of the law would be useful in the management of their estates or for their political aspirations. Later students would go first to a university and then enter an Inn. A number of *Inns of Chancery* also existed as preparatory schools for younger boys who might go on to study at the Inns of Court, or who might take lesser positions as solicitors, attorneys or proctors. The Inns of Chancery, which no longer exist, were:

- ⇨ *Staple Inn* (affiliated to Gray's Inn).
- ⇨ Barnard's Inn (affiliated to Gray's Inn).
- ⇨ *Clifford's Inn*—the last surviving one which closed in 1900 (affiliated to the Inner Temple).
- ⇨ *Clement's Inn* (affiliated to the Inner Temple).
- ⇨ *New Inn* (affiliated to the Middle Temple).
- ⇨ *Thavie's Inn* (affiliated to Lincoln's Inn).
- ⇨ *Furnival's Inn* (affiliated to Lincoln's Inn).

Lawyers were of two types:

1. Those who pleaded and worked on behalf of clients—the *barristers, solicitors* (also known prior to 1873 as *attorneys at law*), and formerly also *advocates* and *proctors*.
2. Those who heard cases and made decisions—*judges* and *magistrates* (also known as *Justices of the Peace*).

Barristers usually attended a university (only Oxford and Cambridge until Durham and London were founded in the 1830s. They were admitted to the bar through an Inn of Court and acted as advocates in court as well as advising on specialist points of law (Herber). The three levels of barristers were: *ordinary barristers, King's* or *Queen's Counsel,* and *Serjeants at Law.*

Solicitors were usually called *Attorneys (-at-Law)* until 1873 (Herber, Camp 2001-2). They were members of the Inns of Court up to the end of the 17th century, but then trained at one of the Inns of Chancery during 18th-19th centuries until these closed. Some solicitors went to university, including most since the late 19th century in university *law schools*. He had to serve a period of training with a qualified solicitor, known as *articles*, before he could be admitted as a solicitor; from 1728 this was five years, but is now only two. During the period 1710-1811 the *deeds of articles* were subject to the same *stamp duty* as apprentice indentures.

From 1749 the new solicitor had to swear an *affidavit of due execution* that he had completed his articles and until the 19th century he had to be formally admitted to practice in each court. Prior to 1873, (Herber, but Fitzhugh says 1875), solicitors specialized in equity matters, and attorneys practised in the superior courts of common law representing suitors who did not appear in person (Fitzhugh). After this date proctors, attorneys and *solicitors* all became known as *solicitors*. Hurley (1994) gives a contemporary view of the profession in 1818. Some individuals were and are qualified to act as both barristers and solicitors. It should be noted that the term attorney is used differently in the USA.

Proctors (or Procurators) prior to 1873 were the equivalent of barristers working in the ecclesiastical and admiralty courts on civil cases. Another old term for them is *canon lawyers or canonists*, applicable before the Reformation. Titford (1991) has more information about proctors.

Prior to 1873 the *advocate* was the equivalent of a solicitor working in the ecclesiastical and admiralty courts on civil cases. They were doctors of law and based on a building called *Doctors' Commons*, which name came to be used to denote the whole area south of St. Paul's Cathedral where the civil lawyers' chambers, their *College of Advocates*, and many church courts were located. *Judges* were generally appointed from the ranks of top barristers called Serjeants at *Law until the mid-19th century. Blanchard (1840) has given us* a wonderful period description of the judge.

Magistrates had a number of different names—*JP (Justice of the Peace), Justice, Stipendiary Magistrate, Stipendiary, Stipes, Police Magistrate,* the *Bench* and the *Beak.* In the 18th century he had some police functions, was typically not a lawyer but an unpaid laymen, and did not receive any training until fairly recently. As the name indicates, the stipendiary magistrate in a busier court was salaried and legally qualified. He was usually one of the local gentry and appointed for his county by the Crown by a document known as a *commission.* Magistrates presided over the Quarter Sessions held four times a year, and also over local Petty Sessions where they existed. Gibbens (1996-2) has provided details of their work and records.

From the end of the 15th century until 1858 there existed a society of canon (church) and civil lawyers practicing in the ecclesiastical and admiralty courts, called the *College of Advocates*, and colloquially called after their building, *Doctors' Commons*. Squibb discusses this organization and its few surviving records. In 1739 the *Society of Gentleman Practisers in the Courts of Law and Equity* was founded and lasted until 1817. Other, local law societies were founded in the late 18th century, and the current *Law Society* came into being in 1831 and holds various genealogically important records. Each of the steps of training and admission to various courts etc. generated records and these have been well preserved and condensed into indexes and abstracts. Good general references include Prest on the development of the legal profession from 1500-1750; Camp's (2001-2) fine overview of the whole

profession; and the lawyer Herber's summary of lawyers and their records, with examples. Holborn is the most comprehensive review of sources (Milliner). There is a Lawyers' Index and an article by Cockerill. The Royal Literary Fund can also be a source for legal authors who had fallen on bad times.

• Barristers

Records of barristers are not kept at the Public Record Office but at their Inn of Court. Records of admission show their age and the name and address of their father. A number of records of the Inns of Court having genealogical interest have been published and Bevan and Raymond (1992) list these. Most notable is Foster's *Men at the Bar*, which is available on fiche 6028223 (6). This is a biographical list of 1885 barristers including judges (chart 32), not a text on drunkards!

CHART 32: Examples from Men at the Bar

DASHWOOD, Charles Henry, a student of the Inner Temple [admitted] 21 Nov 1855 (then aged 22), called to the bar 7 June 1858 (2nd son of the late Rev. Augustus Dashwood of Thornage, Norfolk; born 1833) (see Foster's *Baronetage*).

DASHWOOD, Thomas Alexander, M.A. Christ Church, Oxon, 1852, educated at Eton, went to the South-eastern circuit, a student of the Middle Temple [admitted] 8 Mar 1847, went to the Inner Temple 17 Dec 1847, where he was called to the bar 7 June 1850 (eldest son of Thomas John Dashwood Esq. of Canterbury); born 22 Feb 1826; married 3 Oct 1866, Charlotte, dau. of late Rev. Charles Knyvett, rector of Heslerton, Yorks, and has issue (see Foster's *Baronetage*). [address] *Oakfield, Hitchin.*

• Solicitors & Attorneys

Their articles are at the Public Record Office filed under the Court of Common Pleas (1730-1838), Court of King's Bench (1775-1875) and some others including the Supreme Court from 1876. They are indexed and show names and addresses of their fathers; for details of these and provincial court articles, plus other material on solicitors kept by the Public Record Office see Bevan and their leaflet D36. From 1710-1811 they may also be found through Inland Revenue apprentice tax records. The annual printed Law List commenced in 1775 and an example from 1812 (on fiche through the Society of Genealogists) is seen in chart 33. Later ones show his Inn of Court and career movements, but not age or parentage.

CHART 33:
Example from the Law List 1812

Lists of all types of legal men in London and the 'country' and their addresses, London agents for the country attornies, coaches, newspapers, Judges Circuits, principal hotels, taverns, inns, coffee houses, companies' halls etc. of use to the practicing lawyer.

London Attornies etc.

POYNDER, John, 13 Bridge St., Blackfriars, Clerk to the Bridewell & Bethlem hospitals.
POYNTER, Tho., Doctors Commons, Proctor & Notary
POYTON, Henry, 2 Freeman's Court, Cornhill.

Country Attornies etc. alphabetically

TOPPING 384, 499 (Refs to towns)
384 = Holbeach, Lincolnshire, 499 = Maisemore near Gloucester

Country Attornies by Town

384 Holbeach, Lincoln 105 (miles from London)
Geo Harvey a) Ed Rushworth attorney & notary b)
John F. Hunnings c) Jn Johnson d)
[As Topping is not listed individually in Holbeach I deduce that he worked for one of these companies.]
Agents: W. Mason a) Wordsworth & Co b)
Holmes & Co c) Morgan & Co d)

• Coroner

Coroners, formerly *crowners*, have acted on behalf of the crown since 1194 in investigating unnatural, sudden and suspicious deaths and deaths in prison. Until 1888 most coroners were elected by the freeholders with the election records now held in Chancery Files (C202) at the Record Office. There was a major revision in their duties in 1887 and from 1888 they were appointed by local authorities. Another change took place in 1926 and now they are always either qualified doctors or

lawyers (Cole 2002 who recommends Hunnisett). Gibson & Rogers (1992) relate general history of the office and list some records regarding appointments.

Medicine

The medical profession has traditionally been divided into physicians, surgeons and apothecaries and their histories are different.

✓ Physicians & Surgeons - History

The *London College of Physicians* (now the Royal College of Physicians of London) was founded in 1518 to supervise the practice of *physic* within seven miles of the capital. Most physicians had a university degree from Oxford or Cambridge, although many English doctors trained at Scottish universities, especially Edinburgh and at Leyden in Holland. By the end of the 18th century most physicians were graduates so can be found in university registers, however these degrees may have been bought rather than acquired by study!

Physicians diagnosed and treated internal maladies but did no surgery, considering it beneath them, and they were in constant arguments with the apothecaries on who was allowed to prescribe and dispense medicines.

The *Company of Surgeons* of London joined with the *Barbers Company* (incorporated in 1461), in the time of Henry VIII to form the *Barber-Surgeons* Company. The barbers did shaving, cutting of hair, blood-letting and tooth-drawing but no major surgeries, whilst the surgeons, also spelled *chirurgeons*, concentrated on surgery and were not allowed to do any shaving and

hair cutting. The sign of a barber was a white-and-red striped pole with a basin hung from the end; this signified the bandage used in blood-letting, the basin receiving the blood, and is one of the few trades signs still found today, albeit in a modified form.

In 1745 they divided from the barbers in search of higher professional status and formed their own company which in 1800 became the *College of Surgeons* and is now the *Royal College of Surgeons*. The profession of surgeon still did not carry the same prestige as that of physician. A young man first served an apprenticeship to a surgeon and records of these can be found with those of the hospitals where they served.

Since London lacked a university until the 19th century most surgeons, surgeon-apothecaries and visiting physicians were taught in the seven major hospitals—*St. Bartholomew's, St. Thomas', Guy's, Westminster, St. George's, Middlesex* and *London*. By the early 19th century some provincial medical schools had been established. The General Medical Council took charge of medical education in 1858. Good synopses of the history of medical practitioners of various kinds are by Bourne & Chicken, Camp 2001-1 (with an addition on army personnel by Melville), and in more detail by Amsden. Pelling considers the development of the medical profession from 1500-1750, and Beresford lists dates of major advances in London medical care. The Haynes' give us a vivid life story of John Keats who apprenticed as a surgeon before devoting his life to poetry. For contemporary portraits of 'typical members of the species' see Horne

(*fashionable physician*), and Prendergast 1840-2 (*medical student*). There was a proliferation of unqualified charlatans (see Prendergast 1840-3 on the *quack doctor*), as well as genuine healers who used folk remedies until at least the middle of the 19th century.

✓ Physicians & Surgeons - Records

In the 16th century there was no formal medical training but outside London you did need a *licence* from a bishop (chart 34) or archbishop in order to practise, so names of medics are found in diocesan records. Some have indexes; that for the medical licences issued by the Archbishop of Canterbury 1535-1775 (Chart 35) is at www.lambethpalacelibrary.org and includes at least one woman with an impressive biography.

CHART 34:
Example from Register of Surgeons of Diocese of Canterbury (Film 1836361)

August 25th 1755
A licence passed to enable Lewis SMITH of Fordwich in the Diocese of Canterbury to Practice the Art of Surgery he having first taken the Oath.

CHART 35:
Examples from Index of Archbishop of Canterbury Surgeons Licences

WRIGHT, Daniel gent. of Lawshall, Suffolk 1590
WRIGHT, Ellis of Braintree, Essex 1634
WRIGHT, Richard of Derby, Derbyshire 1724
WRIGHT, Richard apothecary of St. Michael, Derby 1757

A few of the company and society registers which can be consulted include:

- University alumni registers, especially Oxford (Foster) and Cambridge (Venn & Venn), are an excellent source for early physicians.
- Barber-Surgeons Company records, such as apprentice bindings 1657-1786, and freedom admissions 1522-1801, their lists of navy surgeons, and their quarterage books.
- Admission registers of the former *Company of Surgeons* 1745-1796.
- *Munk's Roll of Physicians* is a compendium of Fellows and Licentiates (but not ordinary members) of the Royal College since its beginning.
- Plarr's Lives of the Fellows of the Royal College of Surgeons.

There have been various directories of medical men giving details of current physicians, surgeons, and sometimes apothecaries, including:

- The *Medical Register* of 1779, 1780 and 1783. The first is available on fiche from the Society of Genealogists and has been indexed by Hawkins. It includes sections on the physicians', surgeons' and apothecaries' societies and lists their members, addresses throughout Britain and their publications, as well as staff of existing hospitals in Britain and Europe and much else (chart 36).

CHART 36: Examples from Medical Register

> Mr. Thomas BERDMORE was Surgeon-dentist to his Majesty, of Racquet Court, Fleet Street.
> Joseph BRUSAUD was in Jersey. Mr. John BIRCH was an army surgeon of Essex Street, with the
> 2nd troop of Grenadier Guards, and warrant date 12 Jan 1770.
> James BUREAU of Aldermanbury had written "An essay on the Erysipelas" 8vo, London 1778, 1s."

- The commercial *Medical Directory [London & Provincial]* was started in 1845 contains similar information and also published obituaries of recently deceased doctors. A complete run from 1846-1940 is on fiche on the FHLC (see Churchill) except for 1847 which has been fiched by the Society of Genealogists (chart 37).

CHART 37: Examples from Medical Directory

DASHWOOD, Jarrett, Greenwich, surgeon. M.R.C.S. 1830. Surgeon to the National Truss Institution for the Relief of Hernia; late Demonstrator of Anatomy and the Principles and Practice of Surgery.

FLOWER, John Swan, 4 New Terrace, Camberwell Road, gen[eral] prac[titioner]. M.R.C.S. 1827, L.S.A. 1826. Surgeon to the P Division of the Metropolitan Division of Police and to the district of St. Giles's parish, Camberwell.

KEEK, John, Scarborough, York[shire]. Physician, M.D. Leyden 1824. Author of: 1. "Dissertatio de Syphilide", Leyd[en] 1824; 2. "On the Scarborough Spa" 1841.

- The official Medical Register commenced in 1858 and the FHLC has only the 1893 volume (942.U24).

The range of other sources is extremely wide; consider the following ideas:

- ✓ *Eighteenth Century Medics* (Wallis & Wallis) is a valuable compendium of many indices to medical people including physicians, surgeons, apothecaries, pharmacists, distillers, chemists, druggists, dentists, opticians, midwives and patent-medicine sellers.
- ✓ Vestry and Boards of Guardians' minutes as well as churchwardens' accounts typically name the doctors contracted to provide services to the poor, as John Flower in the above example did.
- ✓ The Wellcome Institute is the largest library in Britain specializing in the history of medicine, supporting MAMS (the Medical Archives and Manuscripts Survey) on their website; details of this library and several others are given by Amsden.

- ✓ There are at least 19 museums of health and medicine just within the London area (Gibbens 1996-1).
- ✓ Medical schools often have archives, too, for example the Westminster Hospital Medical School registers of students 1890-1973 are in Imperial College archives, on the AIM25 (Archives in London and the M25 Area) [the M25 is the circular highway around outer London] at www.aim25.ac.uk.
- ✓ The Shire books on the Victorian hospital (Mitton) and ambulances (Batten).
- ✓ Alex Glendinning's website *Was Your Ancestor a Doctor* at http://user.itl.net/~glen/doctors.html.
- ✓ The database of hospital records called HOSPREC at http://hospitalrecords.pro.gov.uk.
- ✓ Many doctors, particularly surgeons, did a stint in the Royal Navy, the Army or the East India Company all of whom have extensive records. Royal Navy surgeons kept *Medical Journals* which are at the Public Record Office in class ADM 101.
- ✓ The Guildhall Library has a leaflet on all kinds of medical practitioners at http://ihr.sas.ac.uk/gh/apoths.htm and most county archives have a leaflet describing what they have.

✓ Apothecaries

The apothecaries dispensed medicines, perfumes, spices, herbs, comfits, antidotes, aphrodisiacs, antiseptics, tonics, purgatives, laxatives, emetics, astringents and general cure-alls (Hey). They are the forerunners of the later *chemists* and *druggists*, *dispensing chemists*, the more qualified *pharmaceutical chemists* and modern *pharmacists* as well as the old general practitioner in medicine. The duties of the apothecary including compounding herbs and distilling, and are quaintly listed in the 1779 Medical Register.

By the 13th century the *pepperers* (also known as *grocers*), *spicers* and *apothecaries* controlled the trade in drugs and spices from abroad. The London Company of Apothecaries was incorporated in 1606 as a section of the Grocers Company, but separated from them in 1617 (Amsden). There was continuing friction between physicians and apothecaries on who had the right to prescribe medicines, but in 1722 the apothecaries gained the right to inspect all druggists shops in London. From 1815 it was the licensing agency for English & Welsh apothecaries who had to have taken a five-year apprenticeship. The Apothecaries Company apprenticeships 1617-1669 have been indexed by Wallis (2000) and later ones can be found in Wallis & Wallis (1988). Many apothecaries will be found in the medical registers, and a list of all certificated apothecaries 1815-1840 has been published on three fiche by the Society of Genealogists (chart 38).

CHART 38:
Example from Certificated Apothecaries List 1815-1840

*Apothecaries qualified to practise in any part of England & Wales

Richard Michael EDRIDGE, Hertford [Herts]	*9 Oct 1817*
Alfred EVANS, Mile End, London	*12 Oct 1837*

Apothecaries qualified to practise in any part of England & Wales Except in the City of London and within ten miles of it.

Robert DASHWOOD, Beccles [Suffolk]	*29 Apr 1830*
Lancelot DASHWOOD, Great Yarmouth, [Norfolk]	*9 Dec 1830*
Charles Burton DASHWOOD, Beccles, Suffolk	*25 Sep 1834*

Hurley describes the early history and duties of the apothecary as the dispenser of medicine (1991-1), of the chemist as maker and the druggist as seller of medicines (1994). Prendergast has a delightful contemporary essay on the species (1840-1), Rookledge discusses his chemist ancestor, and Jackson has a well-illustrated look at the Victorian chemist & druggist and his equipment. The names of the clerks, bedels and other staff of the Society of Apothecaries are listed by Stringer. The Royal Pharmaceutical Society has records from 1840 and is very helpful to genealogists.

✓ Dentists

The term *dentist* came into use about 1750, but these practitioners often did not have any more medical background than the formerly-used *barber-surgeons*, itinerant tooth-pullers, *local blacksmiths* or the *operators on the teeth* who also provided false teeth. Training and examinations were introduced in the mid-19th century and the *Dentists Register* established in 1878 gave names, addresses, date of registration and qualifications (chart 39).

CHART 39: Example from Dentists Register 1912
[Note that those in practice before 1878 were grandfathered in]

BOURDAS, John. Royal Navy. Registered 16 Feb 1905. Lic. Den. Surg. R. Coll. Surg. Eng. 1903.
BOWDEN, William, 38 Harley Street, London W. Registered 30 Dec 1878. In practice before 22 July 1878
BOWER, Herbert Robertson, 155 High Street, Irvine, Ayrshire.
Registered 29 Sep 1904. Lic. Den. Surg. R. Coll. Surg. Edin. 1904.

The British Dental Association came in 1880 and there was a further Dental Act in 1921 regulating the profession. There has not been a lot written for the family historian with dentist ancestors; the best I can produce is Ash, who tells about a *denture maker* who perfected a suitable porcelain for making dentures as he hated using dead men's teeth!

✓ Nurses

Prior to the Reformation nursing was largely in the hands of religious bodies and both male and female nurses were common. At the dissolution of the monasteries a crisis in health care arose, with a variety of responses. Some hospitals, like St. Bartholomew's in London were re-established on secular lines, but most nursing was carried out by totally untrained and mostly unclean women of the *Sarah Gamp* type in Dicken's *Martin Chuzzlewit* (Howlett). Doctors' assistants carried out much of what we now think of as nurses' duties, and the women were really low-class domestic servants. There was little change until the mid-19th century when a few Anglican nursing sisterhoods were formed to improve the standard of care. The workhouse infirmaries were mostly staffed by other, untrained, inmates, although some of the larger Boards of Guardians did employ experienced nurses. Some voluntary organizations trained district nurses to care for the poor in their homes.

The big change came after the Crimean War (1854-56) with the work of Florence Nightingale and others. St. Thomas' Hospital's Nightingale School provided a year of nursing training to paying *lady pupils*, and to *probationers* who were taught free-of-charge. Now respectable women found it possible to train for a nursing career, with those from the higher echelons subsequently becoming matrons and introducing training elsewhere. Thus the concept of nursing training spread rapidly, with longer periods and higher levels of expertise. The hospital was still the last resort for the patient, though, since until the nature of infectious

disease and its control with antiseptics was understood the risk of acquiring infection in hospital was great.

So the hospitals catered mainly to the lower classes, the more affluent preferring to be nursed in their own homes, and this provided a better environment and a good source of income for private nurses. *Monthly nurses* are often noted in the 19th century censuses. These were private nurses who came into the home once the midwife's work was finished, to assist mother and child for one month. An unflattering contemporary portrait of the early members of the species is given by Hunt. In the days before baby formula a *wet nurse* was a decent working-class woman who breast-fed another's baby for several months, receiving a wage and good food during this time. Good sections on the history of nursing are provided by Bourne & Chicken, Amsden, Howlett, Carter (1992-1) and Daykin and a smaller one by Herber. Fry, and Carter (1995) both reminisce on nurse training in the 1930s. The UK Centre for the History of Nursing is at www.qmuc.ac.uk/hn/history with details about the *National Council of Nurses* and the *Society of Registered Male Nurses*. Before WWI the *VAD* (*Voluntary Aid Detachments*) were to nurse casualties and Douglas provides the story of one such nurse.

Nursing records are held by the training hospitals as well as those that employed nurses, although the latter may be harder to find. Thus it is essential that the researcher know the name of at least one of these. As an example of records, those for Greater London are discussed by Howlett, and these include Guy's Hospital

(see Cole 1997), the Westminster Hospital, and the Nightingale Training School (Cole) with admissions registers for probationers 1860-1920 supplying:

- Name and age.
- Dates of admission and transfer to St. Thomas' Hospital.
- Place of origin.

The probationers' books 1860-1930 contain:

- Name and age.
- Marital status.
- Religion.
- Date of appointment.
- Person recommending.
- Assessment of sobriety and truthfulness.
- Monthly assessments of nursing skills.
- Details of any absences from duty.

The LMA (London Metropolitan Archives) leaflet #9 describes their considerable holdings in this area. Rose writes on tracing nursing ancestors. The survival of records for those who trained or worked in workhouse infirmaries is generally good in London. Registration for nurses started in 1921 after the Nurses Act of 1919 including a general register and separate sections for male nurses, fever nurses, mental nurses and paediatric nurses. Although untrained nurses already competent and experienced were allowed to register in 1921, from that time on all registrants had to have completed an approved three-year training programme. In 1943 a roll of assistant nurses was established, and these two rolls from their beginning until 1973, partially indexed, form part of the Public Record Office's holdings, see their

leaflets D79 (Civilians) and M55 (army nurses). For further details on nursing records see Daykin, and Bourne & Chicken.

✓ Midwives

Experienced and sensible midwives have always been a part of history, but there were a lot of ignorant, dirty ones who transmitted diseases between patients as well as causing the death of mothers and children (Lodey). In 1511 the church instituted the first licensing system in order that a midwife could baptize a sickly infant thought unlikely to survive until a minister could arrive. The prevailing superstition was that witches would use the flesh of unbaptized children to boil with nightshade and antimony to make ointment (salve) to allow them to fly! A licence had to be obtained from a bishop or archbishop in order to practice in his jurisdiction. By 1603 a woman had to affirm that she was of the Protestant faith, (though exceptions did occur), and that she was competent through serving an apprenticeship with an experienced midwife. The registers may include testimonials from six to eight midwives or ladies she had successfully delivered (chart 40).

CHART 40: Example of Midwife's Licence from Register of Diocese of Canterbury (Film 1836361)

April the 30th 1742 before the Worshipful Sam: Lisle D.D. Surrogate to the Wor[shi]pful Tho: Tenison Com^{ey} er pt
A licence passed to Mary WADDELL wife of Peter WADDELL of Mersham in the Diocese of Canterbury to practise the Art of Midwifery within the Diocese abovesaid, She having first ex[hibi]ted a Certificate of her Skill in that Art and also taking the Oath on this Behalf.

Licensing of midwives by the church died out in the 18th century, but at the same time female midwives were largely ousted by male ones (Prest). This trend was reversed in the 19th century. The trained Midwives Registration Society (now the Royal College of Midwifery) was formed in 1881 and although formal qualifications were not required many would have held a diploma from the London Obstetrical Society. A central Board for regulation of the profession was set up in 1902, and from 1921 midwives had first to become qualified nurses before entering this specialty. Fincher has some early history, and there is a good two-part article by Lodey on midwives.

✓ Veterinarians

The veterinary profession derives from the old trade of farriery and in 1844 the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons was established. For another 37 years the members co-existed with farriers in providing medical services, but the 1881 Veterinary Surgeons Act restricted the practice of animal medicine to qualified vets (Bailey 1977, Davies). Cole recommends a history of the profession by Pattison. Roper has provided an

up-to-date survey of sources at the RCVS, including a complete card index of vets from the 1790s to the 1950s, and information about the International *Dictionary of Veterinary Medicine*.

Religion

The pre-Henrician reformation Roman Catholic clergyman was considered to have an estate, a special standing with God, and these men controlled much of the people's lives as they encompassed:

- Members of the religious orders (the regular clergy of monks, friars, nuns etc.) who offered shelter, limited medical care, some elementary education and prayed for the living and the dead.
- The secular clergy who had a pastoral ministry (rectors, vicars and curates) sermonized and lead the people in prayer.
- Lay and church administrators, clerks, lawyers, teachers and scholars.

After the split with Rome in 1534 and consequent Dissolution of the Monasteries the number of clergy was halved, and their duties were different. The first group were no longer needed as clergy were not now seen as the only ones who could access deity. The pastoral responsibility of the clergyman to his lay congregation involved teaching the scriptures and how the average man could communicate directly with God. It is worthwhile remembering these distinctions when researching the lives of pre-and post- reformation

clergymen. Prest has a detailed exposition of how the profession evolved up until about 1750.

A few definitions follow, and further details can be found in Camp (2001-4) and Friar:

- *A priest* is any ordained clergyman, but since the Reformation general usage has confined the term to the Roman Catholic and Eastern churches. The term *minister* is generally used for Protestant nonconformist priests.
- An *incumbent* of the parish is the current person in charge of the spiritual welfare, or *cure of souls*. He holds the *benefice* or *living* (ecclesiastical office) with its income derived from land and tithes etc. The incumbent could be a *rector* who lived in a *rectory* and received both the *great tithes* and the *small tithes*; a *vicar* living in a *vicarage* who only received the small tithes; or a *perpetual curate* who served for a wage in a parish with no regular endowed vicarage.
- A *parson* is the colloquial name for any incumbent and his dwelling is generically termed a parsonage. Prior to the 17th century the term *curate* was also used for the incumbent, but later it was used for an incumbent's assistant, or an unbeneficed clergyman.
- *The advowson* is the right of the *patron of the living* to make *presentation* to the bishop of a suitable person as incumbent. The right was inheritable and saleable, and was often used to advance members of the patron's family rather than the best candidate.
- Church of England clergy often described themselves as a *clerk in holy orders*, or simply,

clerk. Formerly a commercial clerk was called a *scrivener* or *writer*.

- *Magister* is the term used to describe a pre-18th century clerk who had been to university; those who had not were termed *Dominus*, which was sometimes translated as *Sir* but did not indicate knighthood.
- A *chaplain* was a chapel priest without a benefice who ministered to a royal or large household, a body such as a hospital, nunnery, prison or the armed forces, or is a bishop's private secretary.

Early Records Starting Before 1534

- *Fasti Ecclesiae Anglicanae 1066-1857* (Le Neve) is useful for higher clergy down to archdeacons. This does not appear to have been filmed yet.
- Those clergy that had university degrees will be found in the printed registers, in particular the *Alumni Oxoniensis* from 1500 (Foster) & *Alumni Cantabrigiensis* from early times (Venn & Venn).
- Ordination records will be in diocesan *Bishop's Registers* now usually in county archives, and can contain details of baptism, education and character references. Most are on film as is the example in chart 41; those for the Diocese of Bath & Wells 1309-1920 are on 16 films starting at 2149041.

CHART 41:
Example of Curate's Licence from Register of Diocese of Canterbury (Film 1836361)

July the 3rd 1746 before the Rev'd Worshipful George Paul LL.D.
Vicar General er present John Rocet N.P.
A Licence passed to the Rev'd Wm LOUP B.A. to serve the cure of Snave in the Diocese of Canterbury. His Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury's Directions having been first signified by the Vicar General above named & the said Mr. Loup having also taken the Oath and subscribed to such Articles & Declarations as the Law in that Behalf provides.

- When a new incumbent was appointed he was first instituted and then inducted, as recorded in the *Clergy Institution Books* at the Public Record Office which provide a useful synopsis of the careers and movements of clergymen but no personal details. For example *Repertorium ecclesiasticum parochiale londinense covers London, Middlesex and some parishes in Herts, Bucks and Essex*. The volume for 1321-1700 is on films 0599693-4 with the index at the end of the second film. Induction was recorded in the Bishop's Registers (chart 42).

CHART 42: Example of Induction of Vicar in Diocese of Canterbury

July the 10th 1756
Upon Receipt of a Mandate from the Lord Archbishop of Canterbury bearing Date the Seventh day of July 1756 a Mandate issued forth from the Commissary General of the City and Diocese of Canterbury to all and singular Clerks and literate persons to Induct the Rev'd William ROGERS clerk Bachelor of Arts into the Vicarage of the parish church of Hearn void by the Cession of Henry Hall clerk M.A., the last incumbent thereof to which he was Collated by His Grace the Lord Archbishop of Canterbury.

Other records on clergymen of all denominations include the Guildhall Library leaflet, Bevan, a brief section in Camp (1994-1), and the Royal Literary Fund.

♦ Church of England after 1534

In addition to those above there are many other sources for the Anglican Church such as:

- The edited *Act Books of the Archbishop of Canterbury* 1663-1914 are on 6 films starting at 0993677; the original abstracts are on 11 films starting at 1473629; and Dunkin & Jenkins have produced indexes from 1663-1859 which are on fiche; A-K on 6073773(7) and L-Z on 6073781(7).
- *Crockford's Clerical Directory* annually since 1858. 1858-1940 are on fiche starting at 1368327 with separate years on different sets (chart 43).

CHART 43: Crockford's Clerical Directory 1948

JUPP, Reginald Barry. Univ. of Durham 1931. Sarum Th. Coll 1932. Deacon 1935, Priest 1936 Bristol. Curate of St. Augustine, Swindon 1935-38; St. Mark, North End, Portsea 1938-41; Curate-in-charge of Stone-with-Woodford and Hill 1941-44; Vicar of Neston 1944-46; Chaplain Mombasa from 1946. P.O. *Box 72, Mombasa, Kenya.*

- The *Clerical Guide* from 1817 and the *Clergy List* from 1841 are less detailed than Crockford's but a little earlier, and there are 9 films of different years of the Clergy List starting at 1844 (film 0924768).
- *Index Ecclesiasticus 1800-1840* by Foster includes many beneficed clergy and their ordination dates compiled from bishops' certificates.

Royall (1992) describes these four directories. Many other lists and licences are at national, diocesan and local levels in library catalogues. Once a man has been located in a particular place then a thorough search of the appropriate ecclesiastical hierarchy is called for. One such example is a perpetual curate's licence (chart 44) which turned up on film 1526198 (miscellaneous parish records for Whitwell, Hampshire).

Further sources are in Camp (2001-4), the Guildhall Library leaflet, and Bourne & Chicken, for example:

- *Clergymen's journals* (Sandra Williams).
- Clergy's foibles exposed in the *churchwardens' presentments* (Weller)
- *The Church of England Record Centre* (Catty).
- *Corporation of the Sons of the Clergy*—a charity assisting children of distressed clergy with records at the London Metropolitan Archives (Webb 2002-2).
- *Anglican university colleges* (Titford 1998).
- *Scripture readers*—lay assistants who went into people's homes to read the bible for illiterate folk, and also in the armed forces (Cole 2001).

CHART 44: Perpetual Curate's Licence

Charles Richard by Divine Permission Bishop of *Winchester*.
To our beloved in ***Christ Robert Bennett Oliver*** clerk, *M.A.*
Greeting
We do by these Presents give and grant to you (in whose Fidelity, Morals, Learning, sound Doctrine, and Diligence, We do fully confide) our Licence and Authority, to perform the Office of Curate of *the Perpetual Curacy of Whitwell in the Isle of Wight in the County of Southampton and our Diocese of Winchester (separated from the United Benefices of Niton and Godshill by an Order in Council bearing date the 26th day of February last). On the Nomination of the Provost and Scholars of the Queen's College in the University of Oxford, the true and undoubted Patrons thereof in full right (as it is asserted)* in preaching the Word of God, and in reading the Common Prayers and performing all other Ecclesiastical Duties belonging to the said Office, according to the Form prescribed in the Book of Common Prayer, made and published by Authority of Parliament, and the Canons and Constitutions in that behalf lawfully established and promulged and not otherwise, or in any other manner (you having first in the presence of *Our Commissary duly appointed* made and subscribed the Declaration of Assent and the Declaration against Simony and taken the Oath of Allegiance and Supremacy provided to be made, subscribed and taken by the Clerical Subscription Act 1865; and also having first taken the Oath of Canonical obedience to us and our successors). AND WE do by these presents authorize you to receive and enjoy all and singular the stipend, profits and advantages whatsoever, belonging to the said *Perpetual Curacy*.
IN WITNESS whereof We have caused our Episcopal Seal to be affixed to these presents. Date the seventh day of September in the year of our Lord One thousand eight hundred and *sixty seven* and in the *fortieth year* of our Translation.
Ch. [seal] Winton [abbreviation for Winchester]

♦ Roman Catholics

From 1534, except for the brief interlude of Mary's reign (1553-1558), Roman Catholicism was not the established church and adherents, especially the mission priests and the Jesuits, were actively persecuted at times. Terms such as *papist*, and Recusant were used, but the latter could mean any non-Anglican between 1662 and 1685. Catholics refer to the time between 1559 and 1829, when the last of the anti-Catholic statutes was repealed, as the *penal period.* It should be noted that freedom of worship was granted in 1778. During the penal period Catholicism was strongest in the northern counties and Catholic children were sent abroad to be educated. Obviously this applied only to the upper classes, but a disproportionate number of them were of the old faith - 25% of the gentry, compared with 4% for the whole population, of Yorkshire was Catholic.

The first college for English Catholics to train for the priesthood abroad was founded in 1568 in Douai in France and subsequently others in St. Omer, Paris, Dieulouard, Rome, Valladolid, and Seville. Convents for training English girls were located in Bruges, Cambrai, Dunkirk, Ghent, Gravelines, Pontoise, Paris and elsewhere. The *Catholic Record Society* has published many of these colleges' and convents' records containing much family detail (Gandy 1998).

Priests had to be sheltered by the Catholic gentry and their occupations disguised. They typically used false names and in order that these would be recognized by true followers but not government infiltrators they

would use their mother's or grandmother's maiden name—a genealogical bonus. Some of the many compendia of priestly biographies noted by Gandy (2001) include:

- Anstruther on *Seminary Priests*.
- Bellenger on *English & Welsh Priests* 1558-1800.
- Birt on *Benedictines*.
- Fitzgerald-Lombard on *English & Welsh Priests* 1801-1914.
- Foley on *Jesuits*.
- Gumbley on *Dominicans*.
- Thaddeus on *Franciscans*.
- Zimmerman on *Carmelites*.

For nuns there is Steele on *Convents* and the *Catholic Family History Society* has an index of 14,000 nuns.

Very few English Catholic records were kept during the penal period because a priest so doing would have been signing his own and his parishioners' imprisonment or death warrants if the book were found. Only from 1700 onwards can registers be found (Gandy 1994-7 volumes). Catholic services and chapels again became legal by Relief Acts of 1778 and 1791, and worship was strengthened by several thousand Catholic priests who fled to England from the French Revolution. In England from 1700-1918 the church did not have a parish system as it did in predominantly Catholic countries; it was divided into areas called missions which had indefinite boundaries.

Parish priests have been known as seculars from the 19th century. Gandy has done immeasurable service by publishing two Catholic bibliographies (1996) and summary information on the missions and parishes, as well as his introductory volumes (1998, 2001) which overlap but also contain different material. Titford (1998) reports on Roman Catholic college registers.

♦ Protestant Non-conformists

Dissenters were excluded from higher education in universities before the 1689 Toleration Act, and several *dissenting academies* were founded after the Act of Uniformity of 1662 to fill the gap. The best of them were even regarded as superior to the universities (Hey) and boys entered between 15 and 17 years of age. In time colleges with specific denominational affiliations were founded at Oxford and Cambridge, and elsewhere; Titford (1998-1999) has a good summary of them and their records. Dr. William's Library contains the libraries and collections of the former dissenting academies and theological colleges in Hackney, Highbury and Homerton (Shorney). The Gentleman's Magazine listed many marriages and obituaries for Dissenting Ministers (Ruston 1996). Titford (2001-2) extols Evans' 1896 volume about Dissenting Ministers and congregations as providing much detail not available elsewhere.

Baptists started in 1611, but there was no central organization nor standard training for the ministry. Neither has there ever been a single directory of information about their ministers. Those churches included in the Baptist Union, which was formed in

1812, did have listings in what is currently called the *Baptist Union Directory*, and its forerunners since 1832. Other Baptist groups are listed by Breed, who gives details of the large number of lists of ministers that have been compiled since 1715, and where to find them. Pictures of many Baptist preachers are given by Titford (2001-1).

Congregationalism started in the mid-16th century and adherents were first called *Brownists*, or *Separatists*, and later *Independents*. They believed that each congregation should choose its own minister without the approval of a bishop. Clifford, the standard reference, does not mention either training or biographical indexes of ministers.

Methodism was started about 1744 and after the death of its founder, John Wesley, in 1791 there were many secessionist groups, all detailed by Leary. Each of the break-away denominations had its Theological Training Centre for ministers, but there are now only three of these with records housed in the Methodist Archives. The *stations* or *circuits* give dates of commencement and length of service in each one, and there are a number of indexes to them. Methodist magazines were strong on detailed obituaries and again, indexes of these exist (Leary). Rothery tells of his Methodist preacher forebear.

The **Presbyterians** were a group of Puritans who emerged in the late 16th century and later mostly became *Unitarians*. Ruston deems Presbyterianism a church government structure rather than a system of beliefs.

Dr. Williams Library holds much of interest on English Presbyterians and Unitarians including the Surman Index of Dissenting Ministers. There is the extensive Johnston Index of Unitarian obituaries 1794-date and Ruston is the standard text.

The **Society of Friends** or **Quakers** arose in the late 1640s and were the most radical of the Puritans. The gift of vocal ministry in the otherwise silent worship services was encouraged but not trained, so there were no training colleges for ministers. From 1682 annual lists of deceased ministers were made and those for 1700-1843 are available together with an index (Milligan & Thomas).

The **Salvation Army** was established only in 1865 and has full-time trained ministers. A *soldier* (regular member) accepted for ministerial training at the William Booth Memorial Training College is a *candidate* and records exist (Wiggins).

Science & Engineering

The recency of these professions means that most are well covered in the usual Who's Who and biographical dictionaries such as Colvin on *architects 1660-1840.* There are few descriptions of their work written with family historians in mind.

Early Walloon and Fleming engineering work draining the East Anglian fens from 1626 is described by Beharrell. Canals, roads, bridges and railways are the subjects of essays by Chaloner. The 19th century

engineers have been considered by Jarvis, who surveys the works of the consultants, salaried engineers and the entrepreneurs. Alefounder has traced a 17th-18th century mapmaker, and various scientists and explorers who have authored works but who fell on hard times can be found in the Royal Literary Fund records. Inventions and patents are the subject of Public Record Office leaflet D3, and registered designs and trade marks are covered in D100 and D101. Examples from Woodcroft's Alphabetical Index of Patentees of Inventions 1617-1852 on film 0087890 is shown in chart 45.

CHART 45: Patentees of Inventions

Patentee	#	Date	Subject Matter
Reid, John Patterson	5482	4 Apr 1827	Power-looms for weaving cloth of various kinds
Reid, William	11,974	23 Nov 1847	Communicating intelligence by electricity
Rémond, Amedée Francois	12,493	28 Feb 1849	Machinery for folding envelopes

The researcher can then follow up at the Patent Office or in the patent collection at the British Library, and van Dulken, a patent librarian there shows how.

Sports

19th and 20th century biographical dictionaries and Who's Who books cover the sports field very well, an example for cricket (of-course!) is in chart 46.

CHART 46: Who's Who of Cricketers 1984

JUPP, George William
Amateur. b: 14.7.1873 Bloxwich, Staffs. d: 12.4.1945 Wolverhampton. Middle order right-hand batsman, bowler.
Teams Somerset (1901-07, 5 matches); Scotland (1905-12).
Career batting 11-17-0-209-56-12.29-0-ct 6.
Bowling 244-6-40.66-0-0-3/36.

JUPP, Henry
Professional. b: 19.11.1841 Dorking, Surrey. d: 8.4.1889 Bermondsey. Cousin of W.T. (Surrey) [for whom there is a shorter write-up]. Excellent opening right-hand batsman, right-hand fast round-arm bowler, wicket-keeper, good deep field. *Team* Surrey (1862-81, 252 matches). *Tours* Willsher to North America 1868 (not first-class); Grace to Australia 1973/4 (not first-class); Lillywhite to Australia 1876/7. Tests England (1876/7, 2 matches).
Career batting 378-692-48-15319-165-23.78-12-ct 229-st 19
Bowling 316-7-45, 14-0-0-3/75
Test batting 2-4-0-68-17.00-0-ct 2
He hit 1,000 runs in a season eight times (best 1,275, av 36,42, in 1874). He was one of the most prolific batsmen of his day and owing to his great defensive powers known as 'Young Stonewall'.

Some examples of family history sporting articles are for *prizefighting*, the bare-knuckle precursor of boxing, by Oliver, *rugby* football history by Jed Smith, *athletics* by Morbey & Lovesey, and biographies of Hampshire *huntsmen* by Hope.

CONCLUSION

A quest for further information on an ancestor's occupation may seem hopeless to the neophyte unaware of sources. Now, after studying the vast amounts of material available, not just in archives in England, but all over the world by way of microfilming and digitization, the problem has become taming the superabundance of material. There is information on actual occupations and lifestyles as well as an increasingly available amount having details on individuals. Indexing, to which we all owe a great deal, proceeds apace and all family historians worth their salt see the sense in contributing in this sphere. Only a very few examples can be quoted in a work of this size but the student, having once peeked in through the window and realized what is possible, is now prepared to investigate the contents of the vast catalogues of material in archives and libraries all over the world. These catalogues are increasingly available on the internet, and filmed, fiched and digitized indexes and original materials can be sought through relevant family history societies, archives, libraries and Family History Centres. It is important to check all jurisdictional levels (Great Britain, England, county and town) in categories such as *Occupations* and *Officials and Employees*, as well as to run searches for known key words and synonyms. It is equally important to periodically check again to see what else has been added. The family historian's aim of presenting a life story, not just a list of six dates and places, can be realized with some determination and perseverance with occupational sources.

APPENDIX

Occupational Indexes

INDEX	ADDRESS
Brassworkers 1500-1900	Ms. Pat Santaana, 29 Gilda Court, Watford Way, Mill Hill, London NW7 2QN Fax: 020 8202 6196
Brickmakers	David Cufley, 55 Broomhill Road, Dartford, Kent DA1 3HT http://ourworld.compuserve.com/homnepages/david-cufley
Brushmakers	Kenneth A. Doughty, The Society of Brushmakers' Descendants, 13 Ashworthy Place, Church Langley, Essex CM17 9PU www.brushmakers.com
Catholic nuns	Catholic Family History Society, 45 Gates Green Road, West Wickham, Kent BR4 9DE
Clay Pipe Makers & Society for Clay Pipe Research	Marek J. Lewcun, 63 The Oval, Bath, Somerset BA2 2HD
Combmakers	Ron Bowers, Road End Cottage, Stockland, Honiton, Devon EX14 9LJ
Combmakers & Horners	Robert Watts, 34 Cherry Orchard, Wootton-under-Edge, Gloucestershire GL12 7HT
Dissenting Ministers (Surman Index)	Dr. Williams's Library, 14 Gordon Square, London WC1H 0AG
Entertainers	Marjorie P. Dunn, 2 Summer Lane, Sheffield, Yorkshire S17 4AJ
Gamekeepers 1711-1900	Ms Dolina Clarke, 22 Portobello Grove, Fareham, Hampshire PO16 8HU

Gas Industry Genealogical Index	Terry Mitchell, Old Barnshaw Cottage, Pepper Street, Mobberley, Cheshire WA16 6JH. E-mail: TMM@Tinyworld.co.uk
Glassmakers	Mr. B. Hardyman, 26 St. Anne's Drive, Coalpit Heath, Bristol, Avon BS17 2TH
Index of Indexers	Brian Jones, 32 Myers Avenue, Bradford, West Yorkshire BD2 4ET
Johnston Index (Unitarian obituaries)	Manchester College Library, Mansfield Road, Oxford OX1 3TD
Lacemakers	Mrs. Jennifer Hanney, 155 Ridgeway Drive, Bromley, Kent BR1 5DB
Lawyers	Tim Cockerell, The Old Mill House, Weston Colville, Cambridge CB1 5NY
Millers, Mills & Millwrights	Tony & Mary Yoward, 4 Slipper Mill, Emsworth, Hants PO10 8XD
North of England Mining Accident Victims 1858-1899	George Bell, Original Indexes, 113 East View, Wideopen, Tyne & Wear NE13 6EF
Papermakers in the British Isles	Mrs. Jean Stirk, Shode House, Ightham, Kent TN15 9HP
Perukemakers	Mrs. V.A. Given, Garden House, Horton, Northampton NN7 2BB
Publicans and Pubs, Inns & Taverns	Stan Gooch, 144 Anerley Road, London SE20 Email: pubsindex@drones.ndirect.co.uk www.pubsindex.freeserve.co.uk
Quilt makers	Thelma East, Delamorn, Ladywood, Droitwich, Cheshire WR9 0AJ
Shoemakers	Information Officer, Boot & Shoe Collection, Central Museum, Guildhall Road, Northampton, Northants NN1 1DP
Smith's Inventory on fiche from Family History Library	England 6110526 (96) Ireland 6110527 (18) Scotland 6110528 (18) Wales 6110529 (14)
Stonemasons	Mr. M.J.A. Miller, Sanderlings, Plovers Barrows, Buxted, East Sussex TH22 4JP

Surman Index (Dissenting Ministers)	Dr. Williams's Library, 14 Gordon Square, London WC1H 0AG
Telecommunications	British Telecom Archives, 3rd Floor, Holborn Telephone Exchange, 268-270 High Holborn, London WC1V 7EE
Tobacco Pipe Makers	Peter J. Hammond, 68 Byron Road, West Bridgford, Nottingham, Notts NG2 6DX
Trades & Skilled Occupations Bibliography	George Nicolle, 33 Torr Road, Hartley, Plymouth PL3 5TF
Unitarian obituaries (Johnston index)	Manchester College Library, Mansfield Road, Oxford OX1 3TD
West Country Stone & Quarrymen	www.freepages.genealogy.rootsweb.com/~stonemen
Woad-people	Mrs. V. Billington, 502 Wellsway, Bath, Avon BA2 2UD
Watermen & Lightermen Apprentice bindings on fiche or CD	Rob Cottrell, 19 Bellevue Road, Bexleyheath, Kent DA6 8ND E-mail: RJCindex@aol.com www.hometown.aol.com/rjcindex/trueflare.html

Addresses

Please also see the list of indexes

Artists Papers Register	www.hme.gov.uk/artists
Baptist Union & B.U. Library	Baptist House, PO Box 44, 129 Broadway, Didcot, Oxfordshire OX11 8RT 4 Southampton Row, London WC1
Bethnal Green Museum of Childhood	Cambridge Heath Road, London E2 9PA E-mail: kbones@vam.ac.uk
Brewery History Society	c/o Michael Jones, 5 Blunts Hall Drive, Witham, Essex CM8 1LZ
British Coal (see Hayes Info. Man.)	Headquarters, Hobart House, Grosvenor Place, London SW1
British Library	96 Euston Road, London NW1 2DB
British Music Hall Society	Max Tyler, 76 Royal Close, Chichester, West Sussex PO19 2FL www.musichall.bigwig.net/Homex.html
British Theatre Association	9 Fitzroy Square, London
Church of England Record Centre	15 Galleywall Road, South Bermondsey, London SE16 3PB www.church-of-england.org
Circus Friends Association	John Turner, Lingdales Press, 15 Lingdales, Formby, Liverpool L37 7HA
Circus Historical Society of Great Britain	http://communities.msn.co.uk/CIRCUSHISTORICALSOCIETYOFGREATBRITAIN/_whatsnew.msnw
Circus, theatre & music families	www.users.globalnet.co.uk/~paulln/index.htm
City of London Chamberlain's Court	Clerk, CLCC, Guildhall, Aldermanbury, London EC2P 2EJ
Clothworkers' Company (London)	Clothworkers' Hall, Dunster Court, London EC3R 7AH
Corporation of London	PO Box 270, Guildhall, Aldermanbury, London EC2P 2EJ
Courage Brewery	Archivist Ken Thomas, Courage Ltd, PO Box 85, Bristol, Avon BS99 7BT.

Dr. Williams's Library	14 Gordon Square, London WC1H 0AG
Drapers' Company (London)	Drapers' Hall, 27 Throgmorton Street, London EC2N 2DQ
Era, The (theatrical magazine)	www.the-era.fsnet.co.uk
Fairground Association of Great Britain	Chris Gibson, 157 Field Lane, Horninglow, Burton upon Trent, Derbyshire DE13 0NJ www.fun-fairs.co.uk
Fairground Society	Rutland Cottage, Millgate, Whaplode St. Catherine's, Spalding, Lincolnshire
Family History Library	35 N West Temple Street, Salt Lake City, Utah, USA 84150
Goldsmiths' Company (London)	Goldsmiths' Hall, Foster Lane, London EC2V 6BN
Guildhall Library	Aldermanbury, London EC2P 2EJ
Gypsies	http://sca.lib.liv.ac.uk/collections/gypsy/intro.htm
Hays Information Management (for British Coal personnel records)	Cannock Record Centre, Old Mid-Cannock Closed Colliery Site, Rumer Hill Road, Cannock, Staffs WS11 3EX
Institute of Chartered Accountants in England & Wales	The Registrar, Gloucester House, 399 Silbury Boulevard, Central Milton Keynes, Buckinghamshire MK9 2HL
International Dictionary of Veterinary Biography	www.library.vet.uu.nl/~wahvm
Itinerants (circus, theatre, music hall)	www.users.globalnet.co.uk/~paulln/index.htm
Jerwood Library of Performing Arts	King Charles Court, Royal Naval College, Greenwich, London. (Formed from Mander-Michenson Theatre Collection + Library of Trinity College of Music).
John Rylands University Library	Deansgate, Manchester M3 3EH
Law Society	110-113 Chancery Lane, London WC2 and at Ipsley Court, Redditch

Leathersellers' Company (London)	Leathersellers' Hall, 15 St. Helen's Place, London EC3A 6DQ
Manchester College Library	Mansfield Road, Oxford OX1 3TD
Mander & Micheson Theatre Collection	From Sep 2001 see Jerwood Library of Performing Arts
Master Mariners' Company	The Clerk, Master Mariners' Hall, HQS 'Wellington', Temple Stairs, Victoria Embankment, London WC2R 2PN
Mercers' Company (London)	Mercers' Hall, Ironmonger Lane, London EC2V 8HE
Methodist Archives & Research Centre	John Rylands University Library, Deansgate, Manchester M3 3EH
National Fairground Archive	NFA, Main Library, University of Sheffield, Sheffield S10 2TN http://www.shef.ac.uk/uni/projects/nfa
National Telephone Library	BT Archives and Historical Information Centre, Telephone House, 204 Temple Avenue, London EC4Y 0HL
Patent Office	Harmsworth House, 13-15 Bouverie Street, London EC4Y 8DP www.patent.gov.uk
Patents at British Library	www.bl.uk/patents E-mail: patents-information@bl.uk
Public Record Office	Ruskin Avenue, Kew, Surrey TW9 4DU [from April 2003 renamed National Archives] http://www.pro.gov.uk
Romany & Traveller FHS	Membership Secretary, 27 Conyers Close, Hersham, Surrey KT14 4NG http://website.lineone.net/~rtfhs
Royal Academy of Music	www.ram.ac.uk
Royal Archives	Archivist, Windsor Castle, Windsor, Berkshire SL4 1NJ
Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons	Library & Information Service, Belgravia House, 62-64 Horseferry Road, London SW1P 2AF E-mail: library@rcvs.org.uk www.rcvslibrary/org.uk

Royal Military School of Music	Kneller Hall, Twickenham, Middlesex TW2 7DU
Royal Pharmaceutical Society	1 Lambeth High Street, London SE1 7JN www.rpsgb.org.uk Includes museum
Saddlers' Company (London)	Saddlers' Hall, Gutter Lane, London EC2V 6BR
Salters' Company (London)	Salters' Hall, Fore Street, London EC2Y 5DE
Salvation Army Territorial Headquarters	101 Newington Causeway, London SE1 6BU [see also William Booth Memorial Training College]
Showmen's Guild of Great Britain	41 Clarence Street, Staines, Middlesex TW18 3SY
Society of Genealogists	14 Charterhouse Buildings, Goswell Road, London EC1M 7BA http://www.sog.org.uk
St. Bride Printing Library	Bride Lane, London EC4Y 8EE
Stationers' Company (London)	Stationers' Hall, London EC4M 7DD (see also St. Bride Printing Library)
The Royal Archives	Windsor Castle, Windsor, Berkshire SL4 1NJ
Theatre Museum	1E Tavistock Street, Covent Garden, London WC2E 7PA
Theatrical Collection	Westminster Reference Library, 35 St. Martin's Street, London WC2H 7FP
Town Criers	The Ancient and Honourable Guild of Town Criers, 56 North Hill Close, Northfields Road, Brixham, Devon TQ5 8RY
Trade Union Records	Modern Records Centre, University of Warwick Library, Coventry CV4 7AL
Victoria & Albert Museum	Cromwell Road, South Kensington, London SW7 2RL
Victorian Arena	John Turner, Lingdales Press, 15 Lingdales, Formby, Liverpool L37 7HA

Waxworks Society	Paul Braithwaite, 65 Sandown Road, Brislington, Bristol, Avon BS4 3PL www.users.globalnet.co.uk/~paulln/index.htm
Wellcome Institute for the History of Medicine Library	183 Euston Road, London NW1 2BE http://www.wellcome.ac.uk E-mail: library@wellcome.ac.uk
Westminster Archives	City of Westminster Archives Centre, 10 St. Ann's Street, London SW1P 2DE www.westminster.gov.uk
William Booth Memorial Training College	Denmark Hill, London SE5 8BQ [Salvation Army]

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INDEX

1

1641 Poll Tax, 94
1841-1881 Census Occupations, 32
1851 Census Occupations, 31
1881-1911 Census Occupations, 33
1911-1951 Census Occupations, 33
1960 Occupations, 34

A

Accountants, 308
Administration, 308
Advocate, 329
Advowson, 350
Age going to work, 108
Agents, 193
Agricultural Labourers, 122
Agricultural Tools, 257
Agriculture, 119
Aletasters, 209
Alien brothers, 90
Alien Porters, 145
Alphabets, 94
Amber, 181
Anchorsmiths, 245
Animal Husbandry, 125
Animal Products, 159
Animal Shelters, 268
Apothecaries, 339, 341
Apprentices Of Great Britain, 62, 63, 85
Apprentices turned over, 43
Apprentices, cotton mills, 66, 70
Apprenticeship, 18
Apprenticeship cancellation, 43
Apprenticeship enrollments, 93
Apprenticeship Laws, 41
Apprenticeship premium, 42, 47

Apprenticeship property qualifications, 44
Apprenticeship System, 41
Apprenticeship, benefits of, 45
Apprenticeship, laws, 78
Apprenticeship, modern, 45
Aquatinting, 239
Art, 316
Artefacts, 20
Artists, 319
Associations, 83
Athletics, 363
Attorneys, 332
Attorneys (-at-Law), 328
Attorneys at law, 328
Auctioning, 141

B

Bachelors, 90
Badgers, 287
Bailiff, 310
Bakers, 279
Baking, 208
Ballast getters, 143
Bandalasta, 182
Baptists, 359
Barbers, 334
Barge & Wherry owners, 80
Barking, 261
Barmaids, 282
Barmen, 282
Barrel, 266
Barrels, 265
Barristers, 328, 331
Bartholomew babies, 215
Basket seedlips, 272
Baskets, 272
Beadle, 90, 314
Beak, 330
Beer house, 280, 281
Beetleware, 182

Bell founding, 219
Bell metal, 221
Bellringing, 318
Below stairs, 151
Bench, 330
Benedictines, 358
Benefice, 350
Bespoke tailors, 200
Bessemer process, 229
Beverages, 209
Bibliographies of Occupations, 28
Billiards, 260
Billingsgate Porters, 145
Bills of Mortality, 314
Biographical dictionaries, 93
Bird cages, 272
Bishops' Licences, 79
Bitumen, 181
Black cawke, 295
Black Country, 296
Blankets, 252
Blast furnaces, 228
Bleaching, 255
Blending, 171, 250
Blockers, 245
Blockmakers, 245
Bloom, 227
Bloomeries, 227
Board of Trade Merchant Seamen's records, 65
Boat Building, 240, 242
Bobbin turning, 270
Bodgers, 271
Bois durci, 182
Bone grubbers, 286
Book printing, 240
Bookbinding, 234, 235
Books, 284
Boot & Shoe Making, 159
Bootmaker, 159
Bound out, 67

Bow String, 259
Bowyer, 259
Boyd's Inhabitants of London, 85
Boyd's Citizens of London, 86
Brass, 221
Brazier, 221
Breweries, 210
Brewster Session, 281
Brewster sessions, 280, 289
Brewsters, 209
Bricklayers, 134
Bricks, 201, 274
Bridges, 138
Britannia Metal, 232
Broggers, 170
Brokers, 80
Bronze, 221
Brothels, 80
Brownists, 360
Brushmakers' Society, 104
Brushmaking, 162
Building, 131
Building Materials, 133
Building Trades, 133
Burgage plots, 114
Burgesses, 84
Burial in Wool Acts, 170
Businessman, 275
Butchers, 279
Butt, 266
Buttonholers, 200
Buttons, 258
Butts, 259

C

Cabinet Makers, 270
Calico, 256
Calivres, 217
Cameras, 213
Canals, 138

Cane chairs, 272
Canon lawyers or canonists, 329
Carabines, 217
Carding, 250
Carmelites, 358
Carpenter's crew, 244
Carpenter's mate, 244
Carpentry, 264
Carpet making, 252
Carts, 174
Carving, 267
Casein, 180
Cassification, of occupations, 18
Cast iron, 228
Caulkers, 245
Cellarmen, 282
Celluloid, 181
Cellulose Acetate, 181
Cement, 203
Census, 20
Chair menders, 286
Chairman, 270
Chap books, 287
Chaplain, 351
Chapmen, 287
Charcoal Burning, 261
Charity Apprentice Indentures, 73
Charity Apprentices, 66
Charity apprenticeships, 69, 76
Charity Indentures, finding, 76
Charring, 141
Charter, 86
Chemicals, 176
Chemise, 199
Chemists, 339, 341
Children, 108
Chimney Sweeping, 142
Chimney sweeps, 80, 286
China clay working, 299
China storage baskets, 272

Chintz, 256
Chirograph, 46
Chirurgeons, 334
Church of England, 79, 353
Churchwardens, 204, 312
Circus, 316
Citizens, 84
City and Guilds Institute, 89
City of London freemen, 95
City of London Guilds, 86
City packer, 145
City registers, 61
Civil Registration, 6, 20
Civil Servants, 308
Clapboard, 268
Classification of Occupations, 29
Clay Pipes, 204
Cleaning Services, 141
Clerk, 90, 351
Clerk in holy orders, 350
Clerk of the Chamberlain's Court, 85
Clerk of the parish council, 314
Clicker, 160
Clock case maker, 184
Clock menders, 286
Clocks, 184, 185
Clocks, grandfather, 184
Clocks, longcase, 184
Clog maker, 160, 267
Clogger, 267
Clogs, 267
Clothiers, 170
Clothing, 188
Clothing Materials & Dress, 278
Coaches, 174
Coachmaking, 175
Coal heavers, 143
Coal Mining, 292
Coal scuttles, 272
Coal, Corn and Salt Porters, 145

Cob, 133
Cobbler, 159
Coffee Houses, 290
Coins, 222
College of Advocates, 329
Colour Makers, 245
Comb making, 163
Combination Act 1799, 104
Comedian, 317
Commercial service, 141
Common breweries, 210
Common serjeant, 95
Companies, 55
    Apothecaries, 59, 90, 97, 341, 342
    Armourers, 229
    Armourers & Brazier, 59
    Bakers, 86, 97, 98, 208
    Bakers (Brown Bakers), 59
    Barbers, 98, 334
    Barbers & Barber Surgeons, 59, 90, 97, 98, 334, 337
    Basketmakers, 59, 273
    Black & White Smiths, 97
    Blacksmith, 59, 233
    Blanket Weavers, 251
    Bowyers, 59, 97, 259
    Brewers, 59, 89, 97, 98, 283
    Bricklayers, 97, 98
    Broadweavers & Clothiers, 97
    Broderers, 59, 190
    Brown Bakers, 208
    Brushmakers, 162
    Butchers, 59, 97, 98, 100
    Cappers, 97
    Cappers & Feltmakers, 97
    Carmen, 59, 94
    Carpenters, 59, 97
    Carvers & Turners, 97
    Chartered Accountants, 308
    Clockmakers, 59, 186
    Clothiers, 99

Clothworkers, 57, 58, 87, 92, 174
Coach & Coach Harness Makers, 59
Coachmakers and Coach Harness Makers, 167, 175
Colliers, 98
Combmakers, 59, 163
Cooks, 59, 89, 212, 289
Coopers, 59, 97, 98
Coopers & Stringers, 97
Cordwainers, 59, 97, 98, 100, 161
Curriers, 59, 97, 98, 166
Cutlers, 59, 96, 97, 223, 297
Cutlers of Hallamshire, 99
Dental Association, 343
Distillers, 59, 210
Drapers, 58, 87, 89, 91, 92, 97, 98, 99
Dyers, 59, 174
East India, 88, 241, 277, 340
Embroiderers, 97
Fanmakers, 59, 191
Farriers, 59, 89
Fellmongers, 99
Fellowship Porters, 59, 145
Feltmakers, 59, 97, 174
Fishmongers, 59, 87, 88, 89
Fletchers, 59, 97, 259
Founders, 59, 229
Framework Knitters, 59, 90, 254
Freeman of England, 97
Freemen of Berwick on Tweed, 97
Freemen of England & Wales, 102
Freemen of Oxford, 99
Freemen of York, 100
French Merchants of Virginia, 88
Fruiterers, 59, 128, 280
Fullers, 97, 174
Fullers & Walkers, 97
Gardeners, 59, 130
Gentleman Practisers in the Courts of Law and Equity, 330
Girdlers, 59
Glass Sellers, 59, 206

Glaziers, 59, 97, 99, 134
Glovers, 59, 87, 97, 99, 192, 193
Gold and Silver Wyre Drawers, 226
Goldsmiths, 58, 87, 88, 90, 92, 97, 98, 227
Grocers, 59, 87, 89, 97, 99, 341
Guild Merchant of Preston, 99
Gunmakers, 59, 91, 217
Haberdashers, 59, 87, 89, 99
Horners, 59, 164
Hostmen, 98
House Carpenters, 98
Hudson's Bay, 88
Innholders, 59, 283, 289
Innkeepers, 97
Ironmongers, 59, 87, 97, 285
Joiners & Ceilers, 59, 97, 98
Law Society, 330
Leathersellers, 58, 92
Leather-sellers, 87, 89, 165
Levant, 88, 94
Longbowstringmakers, 59, 260
Loriners, 59, 233
Male Nurses, 345
Mariners, 98
Masons, 59, 97, 98, 135, 305
Master Mariners, 58, 92
Masters, Pilots & Seamen, 98
Mercers, 58, 87, 89, 92, 97, 99
Merchant Adventurers, 88, 99, 100
Merchant Drapers, 97
Merchant Tailors, 87
Merchant Taylors, 59, 89
Merchant Venturers of Bristol, 97
Merchants, 97
Merchants of Spain, 88
Midwives, 348
Millers, 99
Muscovite, 88
Musicians, 59
Needlemakers, 59, 233

Nurses, 345
Painter Stainers, 59, 144
Painters, 97
Parish Clerks, 59, 313
Pattenmakers, 59, 268
Paviors, 59
Paviours, 135, 302
Pewterers, 59, 94, 231
Pharmaceutical Society, 342
Pinmakers, 59, 233
Pinners, 97
Plaisterers, 59, 133
Plumbers, 60, 89, 97, 99
Pouchmakers, 87
Poulterers, 279
Pursers, 87
Ropemakers, 99
Royal African, 88
Royal Society, 215
Saddlers, 58, 60, 86, 92, 97, 167
Salters, 58, 87, 92
Scriveners, 60, 99
Shearmen, 174
Shipwrights, 60, 99, 244
Shoemakers, 97
Silkthrowers, 92
Skinners, 60, 87, 89, 97, 99
Smiths, 97
Soapmakers, 92
South Sea Company, 88
Spectacle Makers, 60, 89, 91, 187
Spurriers, 233
Stationers, 91, 92, 97
Surgeons, 337
Surgeons of London, 334
Tackle House Porters, 145
Tacklehouse & Ticket Porters, 60, 86
Tailors, 97, 98
Tallow Chandlers, 60
Tanners, 97

Tin Plate Workers, 60, 233
Tobacco Blenders, 60
Tobacco Pipe Makers, 60, 91, 204
Trinity House, 57, 96, 98
Trinity House Petitions, 65
Turkey, 58
Turners, 60
Tylers & Bricklayers, 60, 134, 136
Upholders, 60, 271, 284
Veterinary Surgeons, 348
Vintners, 60, 87
Watermen & Lightermen's, 57, 60
Wax Chandlers, 60, 183
Weavers, 60, 97, 98, 251
Wet & Dry Glovers, 97
Wheelwrights, 60, 91
White Bakers, 208
Wiredrawers & Linendrapers, 97
Woolmen, 60
Woolmens, 174
Worsted Weavers, 97
Wrights, 97
Companies retaining own records, 58
Companies, modern
Actuaries, 92
Administrators, 92
Air Navigators, 92
Air Pilots, 92
Arbitrators, 92
Builders Merchants, 92
Chartered Accountants, 92
Chartered Architects, 92
Chartered Secretaries, 92
Chartered Surveyors, 92
Constructors, 92
Engineers, 92
Environmental Cleaners, 92
Farmers, 92
Firefighters, 92
Fuellers, 92

Furniture Makers, 92
Hackney Carriage Drivers, 92
Information Technologists, 92
Insurers, 92
Launderers, 92
Lightmongers, 92
Marketors, 92
Scientific Instrument Makers, 92
Solicitors, 92
Water Conservators, 92
World Traders, 92
Company, how to discover, 85
Compositors, 238
Compulsory Education Acts, 148
Coneys, 127
Confectioners, 280
Confectionery, 211
Confects, 212
Confits, 212
Congregationalism, 360
Conigers, 127
Constable, 312
Cooking, 211
Coopers, 265
Copper, 221
Copper Mining, 294
Copper Plate Printers, 239
Copperas, 179
Coppice wood, 263
Coprolite Mining, 299
Cordwainer, 159
Cork Cutting, 262
Corn Law of 1815, 121
Coroner, 333
Corporation of London Record Office (CLRO), 94
Corporation of the City of London, 65, 85
Corporations of cities and boroughs, 55
Costermongers, 285
Cotton, 256
Cotton Industry, 249

Cotton manufactories, 249
Coucher, 237
Country Folk, 27
Country registers, 61
County bridges, 138
Court Minutes, 56
Court of Aldermen proceedings, 85
Court of assistants, 90
Court of orphans, 95
Crab & lobster pots, 257
Cricket bats, 260
Cricketers, 363
Crisp's Apprentices, 65
Crisp's Apprenticeships, 57
Crochet, 196
Crop Husbandry, 128
Crossing Sweeping, 143
Crowners, 333
Curate, 350
Curate's Licence, 352
Currying, 166
Cutlery, 223
Cutties, 204
Cutting, 192

D

Dairying, 125
Dancing masters, 325
Daubers & Thatchers, 97
Dentists, 339, 343
Denture maker, 343
Detergents, 182
Dew ponds, 139
Dictionaries of Biography, 25
Dictionaries of Occupations, 29
Directories, 21
Dispensing chemists, 341
Dissenting academies, 359
Distillers, 339
Docks, 243

Doctors' Commons, 329
Documents, 20
Domestic Service, 147
Dominicans, 358
Dominus, 351
Draftsmen, 245
Draper's assistants, 278
Drapers, 278
Dress, 278
Dressmakers, 189
Drover, 125
Drovers, 80
Druggists, 339, 341
Dry coopers, 265
Dry-stone walls, 137
Dyes, 176
Dying, 173, 255

E

Earthenware, 201
Eating places, 289
Ebonite, 181
Education, 324
Eel traps, 257, 272
Electoral Rolls, 102
Embroidery, 190
Engineering, 361
English homes, 132
Engravers, 238
Engraving, 319
Entertainment, 213, 316
Ephemera, 240, 318
Erinoid, 180
Estate Steward, 310
Explosives, 178
Extra-parochial precincts, 95
Eyeglasses, 187

F

Factories, 107, 249

Factory Acts, 108
Factory and Workshop Act, 109
Factory Apprentice Registers, 76
Factory child, 110
Factory laundries, 142
Fairgrounds, 317
Fairs, 111
Falconry furniture making, 167
Family History Centers, 13
Family History Library, 13
Fan Making, 191
Farmers, 120
Farriers, 224, 225
Fastening pennies,, 116
Featherworking, 163
Felling, 262
Felling hands, 200
Fellowship Porters, 86
Felt, 171
Felt hats, 193
Feltmaking, 173
Fencing, 268, 272
FHLC, 81
FHLC (Family History Library Catalogue), 14
Fiche, 14
Field hockey balls, 260
Film, 14
Film/Fiche (Number) Search, 14
Finding Out What They Did, 19
Fine metal, 231
Finials, 273
Finisher of the law, 310
Firkin, 266
Fish traps, 257
Fisher lassies, 156
Fishing, 153
Fishing Equipment, 257
Fishing rods, 257
Flatware, 231
Fleshers, 279

Fletcher, 259
Flint Working, 299
Food & Drink, 208, 279
Football, 260
Foreign brothers, 90
Foreman tailor, 200
Forest Trades, 261
Fossil diggers, 299
Fowl cages, 272
Franciscans, 358
Free house, 282
Freedom of the City of London, 94
Freedom of the city or borough, 55
Freemasons, 80
Freemen, 84, 90
Freestones, 304
Frock, 199
Fruit Growing, 128
Fruiterers, 280
Fulling mill, 169
Furniture sellers, 284
Fustians, 252
FWK's (frame work knitters or stockingers), 253

G

Galalith, 180
Gamekeepers, 80
Gamekeepers deputations, 126
Gamekeeping, 126
Games Equipment, 259
Gardeners, 130
Gases, 178
Gates, 268
General Labourers, 143
Gin era, 281
Glass, 205
Glaziers, 134
Glove making, 192
Gold, 225
Gold & Silver Wire Drawers, 226

Gold beaters, 226
Gold Mining, 295
Goldsmiths, 225
Granite Quarrying, 300
Graphite Mining, 295
Great Barmote courts, 297
Great Twelve City of London Companies, 87
Grocers, 341
GSU (Genealogical Society of Utah),, 14
Guernseys (or ganseys), 195
Guild Halls, 86
Guildhall Library, 92
Guilds, 83, 84, 96
Guilds Outside London, 96
Gun owners, 80
Guns & Munitions, 217
Gunsmiths, 217
Gutta Percha, 181

H

Haberdashers, 278
Hair powder tax, 144
Hairdressing, 143
Hall-marked, 89
Hallmarks, 225
Hammer ponds, 227
Hand binder, 160
Hand laundries, 141
Hangman, 310
Hard rubber, 181
Hardwoods, 264
Harness Making, 166
Hats, 273
Hats, silk, straw, velvet, 194
Hatting, 193
Hedger, 137
Hedges, 137
Herring girls, 156
Higglers, 287
Highway surveyor, 312

Hiring fairs, 115
History, 334
Hogshead, 266
Holloware, 231
Homemakers, 149
Honorary conferment of freedom, 84
Hoop shaver, 266
Hoop Shavers, 265
Hopping, 128
Hops, 128
Horn, 180
Horn working, 163
Horsehair working, 164
Hotel, 289
Hours of work, 108
Household Goods, 284
Householder, 67
Householders, 90
Housekeeping Items, 258
Housewifery, 67
Hucksters, 287
Huntsmen, 363
Hurdles, 268
Husbandry, 67

I

Illustrations, 20
Improver, 198
Incumbent, 350
Indenture, 46
Indenture 1744, 74
Indenture 1782, 73
Indenture 1792, 71
Indenture 1802, 48
Indenture 1912, 50
Indenture 1959, 52
Independents, 360
Indexes to Trade Apprentice Indentures, 57
Industrial Chemicals, 178
Informers, 311

Inland Revenue Apprenticeship Books, 64
Inland Revenue tax, 77
Inn, 281
Inns of Chancery, 327
Inns of Court, 327
Inspector of Nuisances, 311
Instruments, 213
Iron, 227
Iron Ore Mining, 296
Ironmonger, 284
Ivoride, 181
Ivorine, 180

J

Jerseys, 195
Jesuits, 358
Jewellery, 188
Joiners, 270
Journeymen, 90
JP (Justice of the Peace), 330
Judges, 328, 329
Justice, 330
Justices of the Peace, 328

K

Kilderkin, 266
King's cooper, 265
King's Freemen, 95
King's or Queen's Counsel, 328
Knapping, 299
Knife grinders, 286
Knitting, 195, 253
Knocknobbler, 312

L

Lac, 181
Lace, 196
Lace cleaning & mending, 143
Ladders, 269
Lady pupils, 344

Lamp-lighters, 286
Land reclamation, 130
Land steward, 310
Laundering, 141
Law, 327
Lay and church administrators, 349
Lay or ley metal, 231
Lead, 230
Lead Mining, 297
Leatherworking, 165
Liberties, 95
Licences to Practice, 79
Licensed victualler, 280
Licensee, 282
Lime, 133
Lime Quarrying, 301
Limestones, 304
Line, 246, 257
Linen drapers, 278
Linen merchant, 276
Lip work, 274
Lists of freemen, 93
Lithography, 239
Livery, 90
Livery companies, 83, 86, 92
Livery companies, history, 86
Living, 350
Lobster baskets, 272
Lodgers, 144
Lodging for travellers, 289
London Apprentices indexes, 85
London companies' apprenticeships, 57
Lord Chamberlain, 150
Lord Mayor of London, 90
Lord Steward, 150
Lovage, 319
Lower five, 151
Luddite Rebellion, 250, 254
Luddites, 218
Lumpers, 143

M

Machinery, 218
Machinery on farms, 130
Madder, 177
Magister, 351
Magistrates, 328, 330
Malt-houses, 210
Malting, 210
Maltings, 210
Manufactories, 107
Manufacturing, 159
Market & Street Sellers, 285
Markets, 111
Marriage, 84
Married Women's Property Acts, 148
Masons, 134
Master of the Royal Household, 150
Master shipwright, 244
Masters, 90
Mastmakers, 245
Mathematical, 214
Mats, 273
Matting, 274
Measures, 273
Mediaeval bridges, 138
Mediaeval Occupations, 30
Medicine, 334
Membership of Livery Companies, 90
Merchant citizens (burgesses), 114
Merchant ports, 242
Merchant Shipping, 242
Merchantmen, 87
Merchants, 275
Metals, 219
Methodism, 360
Midwife's Licence, 348
Midwives, 339, 347
Milaners, 278
Military roads, 139
Milliner, 278

Millinery, 198
Milling, 129
Mills, 107, 249
Millwrighting, 302
Mine host, 282
Mines Act, 109
Mining, 291
Minister, 350
Modern Records Centre, 106
Monthly nurses, 345
Mop fairs, 115
Motorized vehicles, 175
Multiple Occupations, 37
Munitions workers, 218
Music, 318
Music Hall, 319
Music Teachers, 319
Musical Instruments, 213
Musket, 217

N

Nails, 276
Naval dockyards, 242
Needle lace, 196
Needlecraft, 188
Needlewomen, 189
Needle-women, 189
Netmakers, 246
Netmaking, 156
Nets, 257
Newspaper printing, 240
Nippy, 290
Nurserymen, 130
Nurses, 344

O

Off-license, 281
Oil and colour man, 179
Oils & Paints, 179
Old clothes dealers, 284

Operatives, 189
Optical Instruments, 214
Optician, 187
Opticians, 339
Ordinary barristers, 328
Orphans' inventories, 95
Orphans' Tax Registers, 56
Ostlers, 282
Outworkers, 232
Overlookers, 193
Overseer of the poor, 312
Oyster dredging, 156

P

Packhorse bridges, 138
Painters, 144
Painting, 319
Panframe, 162
Panshop, 162
Paper, 234, 236
Paperers, 144
Papier mâché, 182
Papist, 357
Parchment, 236
Parget(t)ing, 133
Parish clerks, 79
Parish Officials, 312
Parish priests, 359
Parish register, 313
Parish Registers, 21
Parkesine, 181
Parliamentarians, 312
Parson, 350
Patchwork, 198
Patent-medicine sellers, 339
Patrimony, 84
Patron of the living, 350
Patten maker, 160
Pattens, 267
Pauper Indentures, finding, 76

Paving, 302
Paviours, 135
Pawnbrokers, 80, 284
Pedlar, 288
Pedlars, 80
Pepperers, 341
Performers, 319
Perfumes, 180
Periwigs, 143
Perpetual curate, 350
Perukes, 143
Petty Sessions, 76, 281
Pew opener, 312
Pewter, 231
Pharmaceutical chemists, 341
Pharmacists, 339, 341
Phenol formaldehyde, 182
Phenolic, 182
Photography, 319
Physicians, 79, 334, 339
Physicians & Surgeons Records, 336
Piece-mistress, 189
Pig iron, 228
Pillow lace, 196
Pin, 266
Pin money, 126, 278
Pistol, 217
Plant Products, 261
Plasher, 137
Plastics, 180
Pleacher, 137
Plumbers, 135
Plumbing, 230
Poaching, 126
Police Magistrate, 330
Poll Book, 85
Poll Books, 101
Ponce, 217
Ponds, 138
Poor Apprentice Indentures, 70

Poor Apprentices, 66
Poor Law Act 1834, 68
Poor Law Act of 1601, 66
Pork butchers, 279
Port letters, 156
Porters, 145
Potmen or potboys, 282
Potteries, 299
Pottery, 206
Pottery crates, 273
Poulters or poulterers, 279
Presbyterians, 360
Preserving Food, 212
Pressmen, 238
Priest, 350
Priests, 358
Printers, 80, 238
Printing, 234, 238
Prison Officers, 315
Prizefighting, 363
Probate, 21
Probationers, 344
Proctors, 328, 329
Procurators, 329
Professional, 307
Professional Associations, 83, 103
Professors of Music, 319
Protestant Non-conformists, 359
Public house (pub), 281
Publicans, 80
Pulp ware, 182
Puncheon, 266

Q

Quack doctor, 336
Quakers, 361
Qualification, 41
Quarrying, 299
Quarter Sessions, 43, 79, 126, 138, 281, 288
Quarter Sessions Licences, 79

Quarterage books, 93
Quill dressers, 217
Quilting, 198

R

Rabbits, 127
Rag and bone men, 286
Ragpickers, 237
Rat catcher, 145
Rat killers, 286
Records of admission, 93
Rector, 350
Recusant, 357
Redbrick Universities, 81
Redemption, 84
Register books, 55, 93
Registers of Competence, 154
Registers of Service, 154
Registrar Officer, 315
Relieving officer, 69
Relieving Officers, 315
Religion, 349
Religious orders, 349
Repeating watches, 185
Repertories, 85
Request for Photocopies Form, 15
Retail linen drapers, 278
Retailers, 275, 277
Riddles, 272
Riggers, 245
Roads, 139
Rod iron, 229
Roman Catholics, 357
Ropemakers, 246
Rough masons, 134
Royal Dockyards, 242
Royal Household, 150
Royal Literary Fund, 320
Royal Navy, 242
Royal Warrant Holders, 150

Rural Pedlars, 287
Rush baskets, 273

S

Sacrament certificate, 309
Saddlery, 166
Sadware, 231
Saffron, 177
Sailmakers, 246
Salesmen, 80
Salmon traps, 272
Salt, 306
Saltways, 306
Salvation Army, 361
Sandstones, 304
Sawyers, 246
Sawying, 263
Schoolmasters, 79
Schools, 81, 89
Science, 361
Scientific Instruments, 214
Scots Indentures, 61
Scouring, 171
Scripture readers, 355
Scrivener, 351
Scutching, 250
Sea service, 42, 67, 155
Seamstresses/sempstresses, 189
Secular clergy, 349
Seculars, 359
Seminary Priests, 358
Separatists, 360
Serjeants at Law, 328, 329
Servants, 151, 244
Servitude, 84
Settlement, 66
Seven colour man, 256
Sexton, 313
Shambles, 279
Shedman, 166

Sheffield cutlery, 294
Shellac, 180
Shift, 199
Shingles, 268
Ship & Boat Building trades, 244
Ship Building, 240
Ships' taylors, 246
Shipwrights, 244
Shirt workers, 189
Shoe thread makers, 246
Shoemaker, 159
Shoesmith, 159
Shopkeepers, 80, 277
Showmen, 286
Shrough sheds, 268
Sidesman, 312
Silk, 256
Silk Industry, 247
Silk ribbon weaving, 248
Silk throwsters, 247
Silk waste spinning, 247
Silk weaving, 247
Silver, 225
Silversmiths, 226
Sir, 351
Sizing, 250
Slate etching, 320
Slaters, 97
Slating, 303
Slaughterhouses, 81
Slitting, 192
Slitting mills, 229
Slop, 199
Slop shops, 200
Slop workers, 189
Slops, 188
Small arms, 217
Small Metal Goods, 232
Smelting, 296
Smith's Inventory, 65

Smock making, 199
Smock-frock, 199
Smocking, 199
Snob, 159
Soapmakers, 81
Soaps, 182
Soaps makers, 183
Society of Friends, 361
Society of Genealogists, 65
Softwoods, 264
Solicitors, 328, 332
Sources, 19
Spale baskets, 272
Spelks, speels, swills, skips, 272
Spicers, 341
Spies, 311
Spinning, 67, 172, 250
Spinster, 172
Sports, 363
Sports Equipment, 257, 259
Spy, 315
St. Bride Printing Library, 234
Stained glass making, 320
Stamp duty freedom registers, 93
Standard wood, 263
Stannaries, 298
Stationers, 234
Statuary, 320
Statute (or statty), 115
Staymaking, 200
Steam laundries, 142
Steel, 227, 229
Steel engraving, 239
Stipendiary, 330
Stipendiary Magistrate, 330
Stipes, 330
Stocking frame, 253
Stone cutter, 134
Stone dressers, 135
Stone Masons, 304

Stone Quarrying, 304
Stranger brothers, 90
Straw, 129
Straw mattresses, 273
Straw plait, 273
Straw products, 320
Straw rope, 274
Straw Work, 272, 273
Streaming, 298
Street artisans, 286
Street finders, 286
Street labourers, 286
Street or Ticket Porters, 145
Street performers, 286, 316
Street Sellers, 285
Stuff hats, 193
Surgeon-apothecaries, 335
Surgeons, 79, 334, 339
Sussex trug baskets, 272
Sweeping lads, 142
Sweetmeats, 212
Swill and cran baskets, 272
Swing Riots of 1830-32, 121

T

Tailoring, 200
Tallow-chandlering, 183
Tanning, 166
Tarmac, 139
Tatting, 196
Tavern, 281
Teazle knapping, 173
Telecommunications, 146
Telephone Directories, 24
Tenter frames, 173
Tenterhooks, 173
Textile Printing, 256
Textiles, 246
Thatchers, 136
Thatching, 273

Theatre, 317
Tied house, 282
Tilers, 97
Tilt hammers, 228
Tin, 233
Tin Mining, 298
Tinkers, 287
Titania, 232
Tolpuddle Martyrs, 105
Tools, 257
Top and lop, 263
Tortoisene, 180
Tortoiseshell, 180
Toshers, 286
Touchplate, 231
Town & City Guilds, 96
Town crier, 314
Townspeople, 27
Toys, 213, 215
Trade & Street Directories, 21
Trade Apprentice Indentures, 46
Trade Apprentices, 41
Trade Apprenticeship Records, 55
Trade Indentures & Apprenticeships, finding, 65
Trade tokens, 113, 222
Trade union, 102
Trade Unions, 83, 104
Trade unions records, 105
Tragedians, 317
Training, 41
Translate, 91
Treen Making, 269
Trencher, 269
Trifling metal or trifle, 231
Trinity House Petitions, 154
Trouser hands, 200
Trugs, 272
Trunk making, 168
Tun, 266
Turncocks, 286

Turning, 269
Turnpike, 139
Turnpike trust records, 305
Twine, 246, 257
Tylers, 136
Typefounders, 238
Typefounding, 230

U

Umbrella menders, 286
Under stewards, 310
Undertaker, 232
Undertaking, 146
Unitarians, 360
Universities, 81
University alumni registers, 81, 337
Upper ten, 151
Urea formaldehyde, 182

V

Vaccination Officer, 315
Vellum, 236
Vermin Control, 145
Vestry member, 312
Veterinarians, 348
Victualler, 280
Victuallers licenses, 211
Visual Arts, 319
Vulcanite, 181

W

Wadd, 295
Wage, 47
Wagons, 174
Waistcoat makers, 189
Walls, 137
Wander, 272
Wardens, 90
Wardens' Accounts, 56
Wardrobe shops, 198

Warrant shipwrights, 244
Warrener, 127
Warrens, 127
Washerwoman, 141
Watches, 184, 185
Wattle-and-daub, 268
Wattles, 268
Webster, 251
Weld, 177
Wet coopers, 265
Wet nurse, 345
Whaling & Sealing, 157
Wheels, 174
Wheelwright, 176
White coopers, 265
White Metal, 231, 232
Whitesmith, 232
Whitesters, 255
Whitsters, 255
Wholesale draper (or dealer), 278
Wicker, 272
Wigmaking, 143
Willow growing, 264
Willowing, 250
Wine Porters, 145
Wiskets, 272
Woad, 177
Women, 91, 108, 110, 147
Women's business, 67
Wood, 261
Wood chopper, 261
Wood colliers, 262
Wood cutter, 261
Woodlot management, 263
Woodworking Tools, 257
Wool Export Prohibition, 169
Wool industry, 168
Woolcomber, 172
Woollen cloth, 170
Workshop Regulation Act, 109

Worsted cloth, 170
Writer, 351
Writing, 320
Writing Instruments, 217
Wrought iron, 227

X

Xylonite, 181

Y

Yardman, 166
Yeomen, 90, 120

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For more information or for topic suggestions contact:

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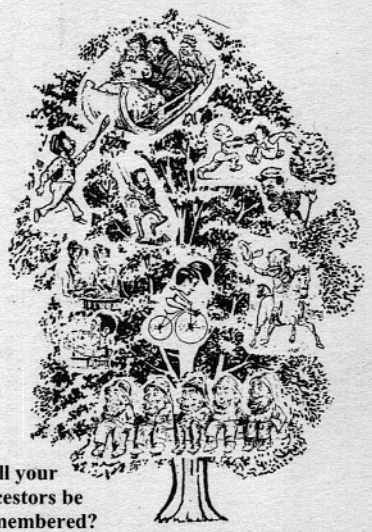

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